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ABSTRACT

This staff development module is part of one of three groups of career guidance modules developed, field-tested, and revised by a six-state consortium coordinated by the American Institutes for Research. This module is designed for helping professionals who have the responsibility of providing career development services to adults employed in business and industrial settings. The goal of this module is to help participants: (1) apply concepts of adult career development to client problems; (2) gain skills in organizational needs assessment; (3) plan a career development program; and (4) design a program evaluation plan. The module format consists of an overview, goals, objectives, outline, time schedule, glossary, readings, skill development activities, and bibliography. A Coordinator's Guide is also included with detailed instructions for presenting the module in a workshop setting as well as the facilitator's roles and functions, and the criteria used in assessing the participants' achievement of module objectives. (Author/HLM)

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DESIGNING CAREER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS FOR BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY

MODULE 41

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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CG 014217

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University of Maryland, College Park

March 1979

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MODULE GOAL AND OBJECTIVES

This module is aimed at people--be they career counselors, personnel workers, or equal opportunity officers--who have the responsibility of providing career development services to adults employed in business/industrial settings. The goal of the module is to give participants the background knowledge and skills training that will enable them to design and implement such programs. The module requires two days to complete.

More specifically, upon successful completion of the module, participants will be able to:

1. Apply concepts of adult career development to the problems of clients. After being introduced to six different approaches to adult career development, the participant is asked to indicate on a Vignette Rating Form which two (of six) such issues are most obviously manifested in each of nine vignettes of adult problems. Attainment of this objective requires 75 percent agreement between the participant's judgments and the sample form.

2. Demonstrate a basic skill in organizational needs assessment. Attainment of this objective requires developing an organizational needs assessment plan that incorporates data on individuals in an organization, organizational decision makers, and the organizational climate using the four part model described in the module.

3. Specify the components of a preliminary plan for a career development program in a business/industrial setting. Attainment of this objective requires presenting the plan, along with a short

"pitch" to sell the plan, to a management council comprising other participants. The effectiveness of the plan and the "pitch" will be determined by the management council's decision to fund or not to fund the program. That decision will be based on the following criteria: feasibility of the program; extent to which it is integrated with other organizational programs; program balance between organizational and individual needs; and potential employee and management receptivity to the program.

4. Design a preliminary program evaluation plan that incorporates critical evaluation components. Attainment of this objective requires completing a program evaluation form detailing the ten evaluation steps indicated in the module.

MODULE OUTLINE

First Day Schedule

Module Goal and Objectives		10 min.
Introduction		15 min.
Pre-Assessment Activity		45 min.
Objective I		
View videotape or read		30 min.
Lecturette or read theories		70 min.
Complete vignette assessment form		20 min.
Objective II		
Introductory activity		20 min.
Study lecturette on model		45 min.
Assessment activity		45 min.
	Total	320 min.

Second Day Schedule

Objective III		
Lecturette and read about programs		45 min.
Lecturette on program design steps		60 min.
Complete program planning worksheet		60 min.
Objective IV		
Review program evaluation requirements		30 min.
Complete form		20 min.
Read program data categories		30 min.
Goal Attainment Scaling		60 min.
Summary and Evaluation		60 min.
	Total	365 min.

PRE-ASSESSMENT ACTIVITY - GOAL ATTAINMENT SCALING

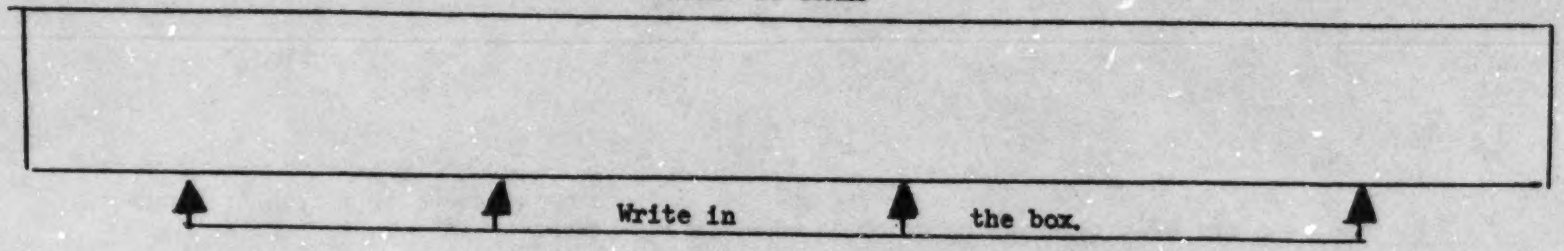
BEFORE BEGINNING THE MODULE ACTIVITIES AND LEARNINGS, TAKE 20 MINUTES AND COMPLETE THE GUIDE TO GOALS ON THE FOLLOWING PAGES. AFTER YOU GO THROUGH THE GUIDE YOU WILL BE SUMMARIZING YOUR DATA ON A FORM LIKE THE ONE ON THE NEXT PAGE. THE DATA YOU PROVIDE WILL BE THE BASIS FOR AN ACTIVITY IN OBJECTIVE 4 "PERFORM A BASIC SKILL IN PROGRAM EVALUATION."

This technique and the following guide is based on the Goal Attainment Scaling Technique. Further information concerning scale construction, uses, reliability and validity can be obtained from Technical Assistance for Program Evaluation, 614 E. Grant Street, Suite 203, Minneapolis, Minn., 55404.

GOAL ATTAINMENT SCALING				
	Goal #1	Goal #2	Goal #3	Goal #4
Much less than the expected level of outcome				
Somewhat less than the expected level of outcome				
Expected level of outcome				
Somewhat more than the expected level of outcome				
Much more than the expected level of outcome				

GUIDE TO GOALS

GUIDE TO GOALS



FOR THOSE WHO ARE CONCERNED ABOUT ESTABLISHING CAREER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS IN ORGANIZATIONS, CERTAIN SKILLS & KNOWLEDGE MIGHT BE HELPFUL. THESE MIGHT INCLUDE "KNOWLEDGE OF ADULT CAREER DEVELOPMENT," "ASSESSING CAREER NEEDS OF ADULTS," "KNOWLEDGE OF PROGRAMS FOR ADULTS," "EVALUATING CAREER PROGRAMS."

IN THE BOX ABOVE, PLEASE LIST YOUR MAJOR GOALS. THESE GOALS MAY OR MAY NOT BE ON THE LIST ABOVE. TRY NOT TO USE MORE THAN SIX WORDS TO LIST ANY ONE OF YOUR GOALS.

1. BE REALISTIC. PICK GOALS THAT REALLY CAN BE ATTAINED AND THAT YOU WANT TO ATTAIN. (FOR EXAMPLE -- DO NOT PICK AS A GOAL ACTUAL IMPLEMENTATION OF A FULL-BLOWN PROGRAM BECAUSE THAT TAKES TIME, MONEY, & KNOWLEDGE).
2. TRY HARD TO THINK OF AT LEAST 3 GOALS.

After you have written in your career goals, go on to the next page.

NOW, BELOW FORECAST WHAT YOU THINK WILL HAPPEN BY THE END OF THIS WORKSHOP WITH REGARD TO EACH OF YOUR MEASURES. OF COURSE, YOU CANNOT KNOW FOR SURE HOW WELL YOU WILL BE DOING, BUT GIVE THE BEST ESTIMATE YOU CAN. FOR EXAMPLE, IF YOUR GOAL IS "PROGRAM EVALUATION," YOUR PREDICTION FOR YOUR PROGRESS AT THE TIME OF COMPLETION OF THIS WORKSHOP MIGHT BE "I CAN IDENTIFY THREE DIFFERENT EVALUATION TECHNIQUES TO STUDY FURTHER." TRY TO STATE THESE OUTCOMES IN SPECIFIC, MEASURABLE, CONCRETE AND CLEAR TERMS SO THEY CAN EASILY BE EVALUATED AT A LATER DATE.

After you have thought up a measure for each goal, go on to the next page and use your measure to help fill in the blanks.

PREDICT

USE ONLY ONE MEASURE FOR EACH GOAL

PREDICT

BE PRACTICAL: ONLY WRITE DOWN WHAT YOU REALLY THINK YOU CAN DO.

PREDICT

GIVE YOUR BEST ESTIMATE OF WHAT YOU EXPECT TO BE ABLE TO DO BY THE TIME YOU FINISH THIS WORKSHOP.

USE NUMBERS IN YOUR MEASURE IF YOU CAN.

PREDICT

Write in the box.

WHAT YOU EXPECT FOR YOUR OWN RESULTS UPON COMPLETION OF THIS WORKSHOP. →	

BE REALISTIC ABOUT:

1. WHAT YOU CAN ACCOMPLISH. FOR EXAMPLE, DON'T EXPECT TO PUT TOGETHER A FULL-BLOWN PROGRAM THE MINUTE YOU WALK OUT OF THIS WORKSHOP.
2. THE AMOUNT OF TIME AND ENERGY THAT YOU WILL DEVOTE TO EACH OF YOUR MAJOR CONCERNS.
3. WHAT HAVE BEEN YOUR LEARNING EXPERIENCES IN THE PAST.

After you have completed filling in the box in the center of the page go on to the next page.

BY THIS TIME YOU SHOULD HAVE ALREADY WRITTEN DOWN WHAT YOU THINK IS THE MOST LIKELY RESULT FOR EACH OF YOUR GOALS UPON COMPLETION OF THIS WORKSHOP. HOWEVER, IT IS POSSIBLE TO DO MUCH BETTER THAN EXPECTED ON SOME OF YOUR GOALS.

IN THE NEXT BOXES, USE THE SAME REAL-LIFE MEASURES YOU USED TO PREDICT YOUR EXPECTED RESULTS. ONLY THIS TIME, WRITE IN WHAT THE SPECIFIC RESULTS WOULD BE IF YOU DID MUCH BETTER THAN YOU NOW EXPECT. SHOW SPECIFICALLY HOW YOU WOULD BE DOING SOMETHING DIFFERENT. USE NUMBERS IF YOU CAN. FOR EXAMPLE, IF YOU EXPECTED TO "KNOW ONLY THREE DIFFERENT EVALUATION MEASURES" DOING MUCH BETTER MIGHT BE "SKILL IN ONE MEASURE."

MUCH BETTER THAN EXPECTED RESULTS →	

SOMETIMES ESTIMATES ARE OPTIMISTIC AND PEOPLE DO MUCH WORSE THAN THEY ORIGINALLY EXPECTED. IN THE BOXES BELOW PLEASE USE THE SAME REAL-LIFE MEASURES YOU USED BEFORE. FOR EACH GOAL PUT IN YOUR ESTIMATE OF WHAT THE RESULTS WOULD BE IF YOU DID MUCH WORSE THAN YOU EXPECTED. EACH LEVEL FOR EACH GOAL SHOULD SAY SOMETHING DIFFERENT.

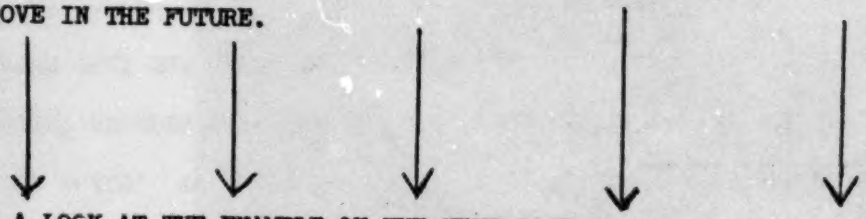
MUCH WORSE THAN EXPECTED RESULTS →	

NEXT, USE THE BOXES BELOW, USE YOUR SAME REAL-LIFE MEASURES TO FILL IN THE LAST TWO LEVELS FOR EACH OF YOUR GOALS. THE LAST TWO LEVELS ARE CALLED "SOMEWHAT LESS THAN EXPECTED" AND "SOMEWHAT BETTER THAN EXPECTED" RESULTS THAT ARE CLOSE TO YOUR EXPECTED LEVEL OF RESULTS, BUT ARE A LITTLE LESS OR A LITTLE BETTER THAN THE EXPECTED LEVEL.

SOMEWHAT LESS THAN EXPECTED →	
SOMEWHAT BETTER THAN EXPECTED →	

NEXT, FOR EACH OF YOUR GOALS PLEASE MAKE A MARK (*) AT THE LEVEL THAT SHOWS HOW WELL YOU ARE NOW WITH REGARD TO YOUR GOALS.

THIS MARK WILL HELP SHOW WHERE YOU STARTED WITH YOUR GOALS AND WHETHER OR NOT YOU IMPROVE IN THE FUTURE.



TAKE A LOOK AT THE EXAMPLE ON THE NEXT PAGE TO SEE IF YOUR GUIDE TO GOALS IS PUT TOGETHER IN ABOUT THE SAME WAY AS THE SAMPLE - OF COURSE YOUR ACTUAL GOALS WILL PROBABLY BE DIFFERENT THAN THE ONE IN THE SAMPLE.

SAMPLE GUIDE TO GOALS

GOAL ATTAINMENT SCALING

	GOAL #1 Learn About Needs Assessment Techniques	Goal #2	Goal #3	Goal #4
Much less than the expected level of outcome	I expect to learn about 0 needs assessment techniques			
Somewhat less than the expected level of outcome	I expect to learn about and be able to describe 1 needs assessment technique			
Expected level of outcome	I will learn about and be able to describe 2 needs assessment techniques			
Somewhat more than the expected level of outcome	I will be able to design a needs assessment procedure for my setting/clientele.			
Much more than the expected level of outcome	I will be able to design, implement, collect data and analyze data using 2 needs assessment techniques.			

FINALLY, COMPLETE THE GOAL ATTAINMENT SCALE FORM ON THE NEXT PAGE SUMMARIZING ALL OF THE INFORMATION YOU HAVE PUT TOGETHER IN THIS GUIDE TO GOALS. GIVE THE CARBON COPY TO YOUR WORKSHOP LEADER.

GOAL ATTAINMENT SCALING				
	Goal #1	Goal #2	Goal #3	Goal #4
Much less than the expected level of outcome				
Somewhat less than the expected level of outcome				
Expected level of outcome				
Somewhat more than the expected level of outcome				
Much more than the expected level of outcome				

GOAL ATTAINMENT SCALING

	Goal #1	Goal #2	Goal #3	Goal #4
Much less than the expected level of outcome				
Somewhat less than the expected level of outcome				
Expected level of outcome				
Somewhat more than the expected level of outcome				
Much more than the expected level of outcome				

To be handed in to Workshop Coordinator

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

Historically, work has served a variety of economic, social, and psychological functions. For many people, work provides a sense of identity and of self-worth. It defines the personality; often, the first thing we ask a new acquaintance is, What do you do? The kind of job that one has--or that some member of one's immediate family has--determines to a large extent the neighborhood in which one lives, the people one knows, the recreational activities in which one engages.

The centrality of work in the lives of most adults becomes clear in the case of people who cannot find work, who have been fired from their jobs, or who have been forced to retire at an earlier age than they had planned. Typically, these people suffer not only financial hardships but also emotional difficulties. They feel unwanted, useless, frustrated; they lose their self-esteem; they become bitter and discouraged.

Just having a job, however, is not usually enough. People also want to be involved in interesting, challenging work. In the last decade or so, numerous articles and books have been written about "job satisfaction" or "work satisfaction" and its correlates. For instance, one 15-year study of aging indicated that the strongest predictor of longevity is work satisfaction (Work in America, 1973, p. 77). As Albert Camus says:

> without work all life goes rotten
>
> but when work is soulless, life stifles and dies.

In their search for meaningful, satisfying work, large numbers of adults are changing jobs. The following report is typical:

> I'm forty-five years old . . . but I'm not a happy person. The money doesn't mean a goddamned thing. If I could find something else, I'd love to get out of it. Let's say I'm a successful failure. I'm bored with the routine of it all. Basically, it's the same routine. (Chiriboga & Thurnher, 1975, p. 71)

Of course, people change jobs for other reasons besides boredom. Some workers may find themselves rendered obsolescent by the introduction of new technology; the skills which helped them to make a living in the past are no longer sufficient to assure their economic security. The coal mine or the factory may close down, the small shop may go out of business, the academic institution may be forced to cut back on faculty because of "financial exigency." In short, people may find themselves looking for new kinds of work for many reasons. Our increasingly complex society now boasts 35,000 job titles for 29,000 plus occupations in its Dictionary of Occupational Titles (1978). No longer can one make a lifelong commitment to a single job or kind of work.

Let us look at just one particular group. At present, nearly 25 million people in this nation--one-tenth of our population- are men between the ages of 40 and 60. The 40's are a period that some researchers have labeled "the mid-life crisis," when many men begin to suffer dislocations in their sense of identity. They may feel a prevailing sense of sadness over unfulfilled dreams (Brim, 1977). Typically, they begin to reassess themselves, to take stock of their lives. Often they feel constrained by others (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1977).

A recent survey by the American Management Association found that

the biggest career concern of "middle managers" was their lack of career flexibility. They perceived themselves as overspecialized. Their salary increases have tapered off, their chances for promotion have dwindled, their future seems set. Kay labels this situation "the boxed-in phenomenon" and describes it in this way:

> Imagine you are a middle manager. . . . Four supervisors and two specialists report to you, and your total operations consists of 54 people. You've just passed your fortieth birthday . . . [and] you will remain in your present job for the next twenty years. At age 60 you will be retired with appropriate ceremony to enjoy your well-earned pension. Remember, you can count on doing the same thing from now until retirement. (Kay, 1974, p. 25)

Most middle managers are men. But women too are subject to the "boxed-in phenomenon." Today women live, on the average, 74 years in a society where first marriage and remarriage rates are decreasing, and divorce and "singlehood" are increasing (Lipman-Blumen, 1975). Many women find themselves widowed. The result of all these trends is that more women are supporting themselves, often as heads of households, for longer periods of time. "Nearly two-thirds of working women are single, divorced, widowed, separated, or have husbands that make less than $7,000 per year" (Congressional Record, November 3, 1975). These working women tend to find themselves trapped in low-paying, tedious jobs that cannot provide them with even the modest satisfactions that middle managers derive from their work.

What can be done to help these adults, both men and women? One

answer is to provide them with career development services, and such services are indeed burgeoning in a variety of settings.

As a first step it is useful to have a profile of the adult user of career development services. A recent study conducted by the College Entrance Examination Board and reported in Career Transitions: The Demand for Counseling surveyed about 1,000 randomly selected adults through telephone interviews. Two of five of these adults were described as "in transition"; that is, currently undergoing a job or career change or planning to do so in the future. The survey also inquired into the characteristics of the "in-transition" group and the kinds of career development services they were interested in receiving. Responses indicated that few adults relied on external sources or agencies for help with career transitions; most looked to their colleagues, friends, and family members. At the same time, most indicated a strong interest in receiving more formal and organized services. Most were willing to pay for such services, ranking the provision of clear, relevant, up-to-date career information as the most important such service, even more so than guidance, counseling, and training.

The implications of these findings are clear. First, increased career development services are urgently needed. Second, these programs should give high priority to providing specific information about career fields, jobs, and educational opportunities.

In what settings should such programs be situated? The most common settings have been schools, academic institutions, and community agencies. Recently, however, the workplace itself has emerged as a legitimate and appropriate setting for the delivery of these services. Two recent books

reflect this trend: Careers in Organizations (Hall, 1976) and Career Dynamics: Matching Individual and Organizational Needs (Schein, 1978).

To design career development programs, counselors need to augment their present training by acquiring new skills and perceptions. For instance, they need to recognize that adults play many roles. People are more than just workers; they are family members, friends, pursuers of leisure activities. The competent counselor must be aware of the whole person. Additionally, the counselor designing such programs must be sensitive to the needs of minority-group and women workers. Finally, the counselor must consider the needs of the organization sponsoring the career development program.

This module is designed to provide training in these skill areas through a systematic planning process. The steps in this process will help individuals who are responsible for designing career development programs in business and industry to insure their program's effectiveness and subsequent institutionalization.

OBJECTIVE 1
ADULT CAREER DEVELOPMENT

OBJECTIVE ONE

Objective: To apply concepts of adult career development to the problems of clients.

Activities:

1. View videotape showing vignettes of adult problems, or read vignettes pages 42-49.
2. Read descriptions of six perspectives on adult career development. (Module coordinators may choose to present a lecture based on the material in the text.)
3. Review vignettes.

Evaluation: Apply the concepts of adult career development presented in the six adult career development theories, by using the Vignette Rating Form to indicate the two issues (out of six) that are most obviously manifested in each vignette.

OBJECTIVE ONE

UNDERSTANDING AND APPLYING CONCEPTS OF ADULT CAREER DEVELOPMENT

What are the concerns of adults who work in business/industrial settings? What kinds of problems do they have? What types of developmental changes do they typically experience?

A series of vignettes will give you some insight into the answers to these questions since they illustrate various career development issues that confront adults. These vignettes will serve as the basis for an activity later in the module. (Note: Those unable to view or listen to the tape should read the transcript on pp. 42-49). In addition, this section gives an overview of six perspectives on adult development which can help you to develop a theoretical basis for working with clients and to design programs based on an understanding of career development issues.

Concepts of Adult Career Development

Different theorists and researchers view adult career development from different perspectives. This section summarizes six representative approaches that are currently receiving attention. Although their emphases vary, they should be regarded as complementary rather than mutually exclusive ways of looking at the same topic.

A Congruence Model of Vocational Development

John Holland proposes a theory of vocational development that is based on the concept of congruence, the fit between the individual and the environment. According to Holland, vocational interests are an expression of personality; moreover, "people search for environments that

will let them exercise their skills and abilities, express their attitudes and problems, and take on agreeable problems and roles." Both personality types (as defined by particular preferences, interests, and competencies) and environments (including groups of occupations) can be classified as follows:*

1. Realistic (R): Involves "the explicit, ordered, or systematic manipulation of objects, tools, machines, and animals." Sample occupations are architectural draftsman, structural steelworker, maid, fish and game warden.

2. Investigative (I): Involves "the observation and symbolic, systematic, creative investigation of physical, biological, or cultural phenomena." Some occupations are economist, physicist, medical technologist, surgeon, aeronautical engineer.

3. Artistic (A): Involves "ambiguous, free, unsystematized activities and competencies to create arts forms or products." Sample occupations are drama coach, musician, entertainer, writer, designer, architect.

4. Social (S): Involves "the manipulation of others to inform, train, develop, cure, or enlighten." Sample occupations are historian, counselor, physical education teacher, homemaker, clergyman.

5. Enterprising (E): Involves "the manipulation of others to attain organizational or self-interest goals." Sample occupations are banker, lawyer, salesman, radio/TV announcer.

6. Conventional (C): Involves "the explicit, ordered, systematic

---

*Quotations in this section are from Holland, 1973.

manipulation of data, such as keeping records, filing materials, reproducing materials, organizing written and numerical data according to a prescribed plan, operating business and data processing machines." Sample occupations are file clerk, certified public accountant, telegraph operator, library assistant.

People can determine their personality type or "orientation" by completing The Self-Directed Search (Holland, 1970), a relatively simple instrument designed to assess occupational and other interests; this personal orientation can then be matched with the specific occupations listed for each environment in The Occupations Finder (Holland, 1977).

Holland's scheme provides an explicit measure of the congruence between person and job and hence of the degree of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction that an individual may experience. For example, a person with a "realistic" orientation who chooses engineering or farming as a career should be relatively satisfied with that choice, since both those occupations are classified as "realistic." But if that same person chooses law (which is classified as "enterprising") or chemistry (classified as "investigative"), he or she will probably be dissatisfied and will experience career conflict.

Why are some people's personality codes congruent with their career choices, while other people find themselves in incongruent occupations? What brings about this mismatching between personality type and job environment? There are several possible answers.

First, people may make inappropriate career choices our of ignorance: either lack of self-knowledge or lack of information about occupations. Many high school and college students are talked into certain

career choices by their parents, teachers, or friends. Many low-income people enter the first training program or take the first job that comes along. Many women accept conventional assumptions about their capabilities and their "proper place" and thus limit their choices to supposedly feminine occupations. In short, many people are simply not in control of their own occupational destinies.

Second, one's personal life or experience may render an initially congruent career choice incongruent. A specific occupation may have norms and make demands that the individual cannot meet. For instance, harmonious marriage is an occupational norm for ministers but not for lawyers or dentists. A minister whose marriage is failing may find it uncomfortable to remain in the ministry. It is not always possible to predict how the circumstances of one's personal life will affect one's career.

Third, a person's interests may change over time; one is not necessarily locked into a particular personality type. Individual needs, as well as environmental options, alter with age, family status, and other factors. Thus, an initially congruent career choice may become incongruent not so much because of changing circumstances as because of more fundamental changes in the individual. One of the strengths of Holland's congruence model is that it allows for such change.

Holland does not assume that career development is linear and sequential. It is not just a matter of choosing the right field, preparing for it, entering it, achieving in it, and retiring from it. Rather, a person's life can be viewed as a series of coded choices that can be studied for their patterns, stability, and mathematical relation-

ships. While Holland's original classification scheme was developed exclusively from studies of college students, he has since worked with more heterogeneous samples, including employed adults. His most recent research findings indicate that career instability is fairly common until workers reach their late 30s; older adults tend to demonstrate more career stability. This greater stability can probably be attributed not so much to congruence between personality and environment as to such external factors as job security, tenure, salary, and labor market considerations.

Holland's major points can be summarized as follows:

- There are six major groups of occupations, corresponding to six personality types: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, and conventional.
- Congruence between personality and the occupational environment determines job satisfaction.
- An adult's interests may change over time, rendering initially congruent career choices incongruent: similarly, the circumstances of a person's life may make for a poor "fit" between person and occupation.
- Older adults report greater job stability than do younger adults.

A Theory of Life Stages Among Adult Men

Many authorities believe that adult development entails movement through a series of discrete stages, which are usually related to chronological age. Prominent among these authorities is Daniel Levinson, whose conclusions are derived from an empirical study involving intensive interviews with forty men, chiefly white-collar workers,

between the ages of 35 and 40. By constructing "the adult life course of each man" and looking for "a sequential order underlying the highly diverse, unique individual biographies," Levinson and his colleagues at Yale University identified a number of "relatively universal . . . age-linked developmental periods," which they labeled and described as follows:*

1. Leaving the Family (LF): This transitional period, which runs from three to five years, starts in late adolescence (age 16-18) and ends at age 20-24. During this time, the individual is usually still living in the parental home but "is making an effort to separate himself from the family, to develop a new home base, to reduce his dependence on familial support and authority, and to regard himself as an adult making his way in the adult world." In some cases, the transition is eased by entry into college or the military--both of which serve to provide some structure, support, and control--prior to entry into the labor force. In other cases, the young man goes directly from high school into the labor force, often continuing to live in the parental home and working with his father or other relatives but having "no genuine occupation."

2. Getting Into the Adult World (GIAW): During this period, which usually starts in the early 20's and extends to age 27-29, the young man explores and makes provisional commitments to adult roles, memberships, responsibilities, and relationships. The central task of this period is "to fashion an initial life structure that provides a viable link between the valued self and the wider adult world." With

*Quotations in this section are from Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1977. Because the researcher studied men only, the masculine pronoun is used throughout.

respect to the world of work, "the young man tries to establish an occupation, or an occupational direction, consistent with his interests, values, and sense of self."

3. Settling Down (SD): This period usually begins in the early 30's as the individual commits himself more deeply to his work, family, and valued interests and sets long-range goals. Actually, the period has two aspects, one characterized by such terms as order, stability, security, and control, the other by such terms as ambition, striving, and mobility. In addition--though antithetical to both aspects and therefore likely to be suppressed during this period--there is "a disposition to be free, unfettered, not tied to any structure no matter how great its current satisfaction nor how alluring its future promise, always open to new possibilities, ready to soar, wander, quest in all directions as the spirit moves one." The SD period, which lasts until the late 30's or early 40's, is to some extent based upon the "rather cruel illusion" that adulthood is a period of stability and certainty and that, once the individual has reached a certain point, he will face no major crises or changes.

4. Becoming One's Own Man (BOOM): The aptly named BOOM period, which usually occurs in the middle to late 30's, is actually a culmination of the SD period, representing "the high point of adulthood and the beginning of what lies beyond." Typically, the individual feels that he is not sufficiently independent of the authority and influence of others and so strives to free himself from constraints "not only in work but also in marriage and other relationships." He wants to be recognized for his own achievements, "affirmed by society in the roles that he values most," and often he focuses on one key event as

most meaningful. "Since the course and outcome of this key event take several (perhaps three to six) years to unfold, many men at around 40 seem to be living . . . in a state of suspended animation. During the course of waiting, the next period gets under way."

5. The Mid-Life Transition (MLT): However successful the individual may be in his search for affirmation by society, he will experience the MLT. The central issue is not success or failure in achieving one's goals but rather the "experience of disparity" between one's life structure and one's self. The individual "is having a crisis to the extent that he questions his life structure and feels the stirrings of powerful forces within himself that lead him to modify or drastically change the structure." Also characteristic of this period, which usually takes place in the early 40's, are the sense of aging and bodily decline, the recognition of one's own mortality, and the emergence (in men) of more feminine aspects of the self.

6. Restabilization and the Beginning of Middle Adulthood: After the MLT, which usually peaks in the early 40's, "a new life structure begins to take shape and to provide a basis for living in middle adulthood . . . it is a time both of possibility for developmental advance and of great threat to the self." Some men make "tremendous creative gains" because of the Mid-Life Transition, but others are weighted down and destroyed by it. Men who fail to experience this crisis often "lose the vitality that one needs to continue developing through adulthood." The Restabilization period probably takes several forms that Levinson and his associates are still in the process of studying. They will continue to follow up their sample of forty men in order to identify further stages in the lives of adult men.

Three further concepts useful in understanding adult development are introduced. The first is that of the Dream--the vision of the future that many men have as they enter adulthood. Usually, the Dream is related to occupational goals: winning the Nobel prize, becoming a great novelist, and contributing in some way to human welfare are the examples given by Levinson and his colleagues. But time passes, and the individual often becomes mired down in the exigencies of everyday living; the Dream may be forgotten as more immediate, short-term objectives absorb his attention. But the Dream is not dead:

> Major shifts in life direction at subsequent ages are often occasioned by a reactivation of the sense of betrayal or compromise of the Dream. That is, very often in the crises that occur at age 30, 40, or later a major issue is the reactivation of a guiding Dream, frequently one that goes back to adolescence or the early 20's and the concern with its failure.

A second concept undergirding the work of Levinson and his associates is that of a transitional period or developmental transition, defined as "a turning point or boundary region between two periods of greater stability." The investigators believe that such points are strongly age-linked. They identify an Age 30 Transition, which is likely to be experienced by those men who have made only tentative commitments during their GIAW period and who later decide to make radical changes in, for instance, their career choice, and by those men who during their 20's have lived unsettled lives, making no

commitments. The Mid-Life Transition is another such period. It is important to note that such transitions may not involve turmoil and distress; they may go very smoothly. But they are nonetheless transitions, "marked by important changes in life structure and internal commitments, and [presaging] the next stage in development."

The third concept is that of the mentor, a nonparental authority figure--usually eight to fifteen years older--who often plays a vital role in the occupational development of the individual:

> He may be a teacher, boss, editor, or experienced co-worker. He takes the younger man under his wing, invites him into a new occupational world, shows him around, imparts his wisdom, cares, sponsors, criticizes, and bestows his blessing.

The intense relationship usually lasts for three or four years and ends because of the death of the mentor, a change in circumstances, or a quarrel. The younger man often internalizes the valued qualities of the mentor following the close of the relationship. Many men have only one mentor, very few have more than three or four, and some may have no mentor at all; this last group is likely to experience "various kinds of developmental impairments and problems with individuation in mid-life." By the time they reach their middle or late 30's most men have given up all mentor relationships; indeed, that is one important aspect of the BOOM period:

> The person who was formerly so loved and admired, and who was experienced as giving so much, comes now to be seen as hypercritical, oppressively controlling, seeking to make one over in his own image rather than fostering one's inde-

pendence and individuality; in short, as a tyrannical and egocentric father rather than a loving, enabling mentor.

The role of the mentor in the development of adult women is now receiving considerable attention from researchers. It is important to note that the work of Levinson and his colleagues is limited to male subjects. Adult women also exhibit developmental patterns and may pass through various stages, of course, but the specific details of those stages are not revealed by the research reported here.

The stage theory of Levinson and his associates may be summarized as follows:

- In their occupational and personal lives, adult men move through a number of discrete stages that are relatively universal and are linked with chronological age.
- So far, the following stages have been identified: Leaving the Family, Getting Into the Adult World, Settling Down, Becoming One's Own Man, the Mid-Life Transition, and Restabilization and the Beginning of Middle Adulthood.
- The concepts of the Dream, transitional periods, and the mentor are important in understanding adult male development.

A Theory of Career Stages in Organizations

Another type of stage theory, applying to the career development of professional workers employed by relatively large and complex organizations, is proposed by Gene Dalton, Paul Thompson, and Raymond Price. Finding that many--though by no means all--such workers get lower performance ratings after age 35 and that many feel frustrated and uncertain about their careers and confused by the changing demands

made upon them, these researchers sought to discover what factors differentiate the high-rated from the low-rated worker. On the basis of interviews with 550 professionally trained men, a group that included both high-rated and low-rated performers, they eventually defined four distinct stages in the careers of these "knowledge workers": "Each stage differs from the others in the tasks an individual is expected to perform well in that stage, in the types of relationships he engages in, and in the psychological adjustments he must make" (See Figure 1). The four stages are described below:*

1. Stage I: The Apprentice. The central activities of the young professional who has joined an organization (be it a business firm, academic institution, research and development center, or whatever) are learning, helping, and following directions. The apprentice "must learn to perform at least some of the organization's tasks competently," familiarizing himself with the organization's formal and informal channels of communication. He generally performs rather routine duties--assignments that are part of a larger project--and must find the proper balance between "willing acceptance of routine assignments and aggressive searching out of new and more challenging tasks." The primary relationship at this stage is that of a subordinate, working under fairly close supervision and, ideally, under the guidance of a mentor who can "show him the ropes" and serve as a model when the apprentice is uncertain as to how to approach a problem. "These and other benefits suggest that finding a good

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* Quotations in this section are from Dalton, Thompson, & Price, 1977. It is not clear whether there were any women in the sample, but to be consistent with the authors style, the masculine pronoun is used throughout.

FIGURE 1

FOUR CAREER STAGES

	Stage I	Stage II	Stage III	Stage IV
Central activity	Helping Learning Following directions	Independent Contributor	Training Interfacing	Shaping the direction of the organization
Primary relationship	Apprentice	Colleagues	Mentor	Sponsor
Major psychological issues	Dependence	Independence	Assuming responsibility for others	Exercising power

Source: Gene W. Dalton, Paul H. Thompson, & Raymond L. Price, "The Four Stages of Professional Careers," Organizational Dynamics, Summer 1977, p. 23.

mentor should be a key agenda item for any professional entering an organization. Providing him with the opportunity to find such a mentor is an equally important responsibility of high-ups in the organization." The chief psychological issue during this period is "adjusting to the dependence inherent in the role of subordinate"; this adjustment may be difficult for a young person just out of graduate or professional school and eager to be on his own after years of dependent relationships with professors. Similarly, accepting the boring routineness of the tasks he usually performs at this stage may pose problems.

2. Stage II: The Colleague. Having developed "a reputation as a technically competent professional who can work independently to produce significant results," the apprentice moves to the next stage: that of colleague and independent contributor. Although not entirely on his own, the colleague is no longer subject to close supervision and usually has his own project or area of responsibility. "In this stage, a person is expected to hone his professional skills to a high level." A crucial question at this point is that of degree of specialization. Dalton, Thompson, and Price maintain that, to be successful, the professional should not try to remain a generalist dabbling in several areas but should attempt to "develop and demonstrate solid competence in some critical task of the organization," either by choosing a specific content area in which to become an expert or by developing a specific set of skills that can be applied to a number of problem areas. Relationships with peers become more important at this stage, as the worker moves away from dependence on the mentor or supervisor, a transition that may be difficult "in-

volving as it does a change in attitude and behavior on the part of the supervisor as well as the individual himself." The chief psychological issue is the transition from dependence to independence, which entails developing one's own performance standards, "confidence in one's own judgment," and an overall sense of competence. Success at this stage is very important in the whole process of career development. Some professional workers move through it too quickly; they are given managerial positions before they have had the opportunity to develop their technical competence. Others remain at this stage through the rest of their working lives: though they may continue to contribute to the organization, they are likely to be given lower performance ratings as they get older.

3. Stage III: The Mentor. At the next stage, the professional worker begins to take more responsibility for subordinates, to broaden his interests and capabilities, and to have more contact with people outside the organization or subunit. The three main roles are that of (a) informal mentor, directing projects and giving guidance to his assistants, (b) idea man, proposing innovations and acting as a consultant, and (c) manager, a more formalized and easily understood role. The most important aspect of his relationships at this stage is the assumption of responsibility for the work of others; this responsibility requires "interpersonal skills in setting objectives, delegating, supervising, and coordinating." He is "the proverbial man in the middle," who must not only "retain the loyalties of those working for him" but also must satisfy the expectations of those above him in the hierarchy. This stage makes severe psychological demands on the individual. He must be self-confident enough not to feel

threatened by the success of his subordinates; he must be protective of them, willing to assume responsibility for their work; and he must be mature enough to be gratified by the subordinate's achieving independence and moving away from him. Those with formal supervisory positions, which give them extra supports, generally have an easier time adjusting to this stage than do those who play an informal mentor role. Many people feel uncomfortable about having to take supervisory responsibility for the work of others, particularly if this activity draws them away from technical work. Others find this stage, "with its combination of counseling, technical proximity, and recogition and rewards, viable and satisfying until retirement."

4. Stage IV: The Sponsor. At the last stage, which is reached by relatively few professional workers, the individual becomes "a force in shaping the future of the organization." The three roles are (a) upper-level manager, involved in such activities as long-range planning and policy formulation rather than in direct supervision of the work of others, (b) internal entrepreneur, bringing "resources, money, and people together" to advance their ideas about "the direction in which the organization should go", and (c) idea innovator, thinking creatively and originally. At this stage, the individual is confronted with the psychological task of removing himself "from day-to-day operations and transactions" and developing the ability to influence at long distance, so to speak, "through ideas, through personnel selection, through review, through resource allocation, and through changes in organizational design." The sponsor must learn to look at the broad picture, to develop a wider perspective and a lengthened

time horizon. He must also learn to use power, to fight where necessary, "to form alliances and to take strong positions without feeling permanent enmity toward those who differ with him."

Dalton, Thompson, and Price point out that this model of the career development of professionals is intended as a general description only; there are exceptions to the "rules." Some people may skip the apprentice or the colleague stage or may return to an earlier stage (for instance, to a Stage II position after having served in a Stage III position) without adverse effects. Most people never advance to Stage IV, and many never reach Stage III, though as has been pointed out, the person who remains at Stage II will probably get lower performance ratings as he gets older. Many workers said that, during their apprentice stage, they learned not from a mentor but from their peers, though "this alternative strategy is usually not as effective as working with a competent mentor. The mentor is better equipped to help the new employee make the transition from the academic setting into a professional career."

Another point that should be emphasized is that people in Stage III and Stage IV do not necessarily hold formal management positions. Many nonmanagers can successfully play the roles of mentor and of sponsor.

Finally, it should be borne in mind that this career development model was derived from a study of professionals--people who had gone to college and to graduate or professional school to receive training in engineering, science, business administration, and so forth--who worked in relatively large organizations. Finally, the sample was limited to men.

The concepts enunciated by Dalton, Thompson, and Price may be summarized as follows:

- Professional careers comprise four stages: apprentice, colleague, mentor, and sponsor.
- Each stage has it characteristic activities, relationships, and psychological issues.
- Not all successful professional workers reach stage IV, but the worker who does not reach at least Stage III is likely to receive lower performance ratings as he grows older.
- The concept of mentoring is especially useful for understanding the development of the professional.

A Sociopsychoanalytic Theory of Managerial Types

To discover what kinds of people are most successful in today's corporate world, and to learn how they shape that world and are in turn shaped by it, Michael Maccoby conducted a study of 250 corporate executives, manager, and product engineers from twelve major companies. Again, the technique was the interview, which was structured around a five-part questionnaire covering family background and education, the relation between work and personality characteristics, social and political issues, values, and marriage and children. In addition to studying the material generated by this questionnaire, Maccoby, a psychoanalyst, analyzed the dreams and the Rorschach responses of his subjects and observed them in the work setting.

Most of the subjects were male (only 4 percent were female), ranging in age from early 20's to mid-50's and in salary from $15,000 to $400,000. Most had come from middle-class backgrounds, had grown up

in a town or a small city, had been influenced strongly by their fathers, and had been socialized to value such traditional qualities as "hard work, self-sufficiency, and thrift." About half of the total group, but a larger proportion of the top managers, had gone to large state universities or elite private institutions. The subjects tended to be very family-oriented (only 7 percent had ever been divorced) and averaged three children. Their work was very important to them and generally satisfying. Most reported that corporate life had helped them to gain "a sense of competence and intellectual confidence" but that it had not developed "compassion and idealism"; moreover, the majority reported that "competition and uncertainty made them constantly anxious."

In addition to sketching this general picture, Maccoby identified four psychological types, distinct from one another in terms of "overall orientation to work, values, and self-identity. . . These are ideal types in the sense that few people fit the type exactly and most are a mixture of types." The descriptions of these types are as follows:*

1. The Craftsman. Tending to be "quiet, sincere, modest, and practical," the craftsman's primary interest is in the work itself, the "problem to be solved," the challenge of creating something of high quality. He has a strong "sense of self-worth based on knowledge, skill, discipline and self-reliance." His values are traditional, conservative, and paternalistic. "He sees others, co-workers as well as superiors, in terms of whether they help or hinder him in doing a

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*Quotations in the section are from Maccoby, 1976.

craftsmanlike job." He prefers to work autonomously or in a small group. "Rather than engaging and trying to master the system with the cooperation of others who share his values, he tends to do his own thing and go along, sometimes reluctantly, toward goals he does not share, enjoying whatever opportunities he finds for interesting work."

2. The Jungle Fighter. At one time a significant figure in American industry and business--as exemplified by the "robber barons" of the post-Civil War period--the jungle fighter, whose major interest is in gaining and using power, is becoming a rare type in corporate life. Maccoby found only eleven pure jungle fighters among his 250 subjects. The jungle fighter tends to be highly competitive, sadistic and exploitative in his relations with subordinates, and "unable to cooperate with strong peers in highly interdependent teams." The jungle fighter may be either a lion, who dominates through "superior ideas, courage, and strength," or a fox, who operates through "seduction, manipulation, and betrayal."

3. The Company Man. Previously labeled "the organization man" (Whyte, 1956) and the "other-directed type" (Riesman, 1950), the company man's primary interest is in the good of the corporation; he believes that, if it prospers, so will he. At his best, the company man exhibits a concern for other people and emphasizes the human side of the organization. "At his weakest, he is fearful and submissive, concerned with security even more than with success." Identifying with the company and seeking safety as part of the corporate "family," the company man is also overly sensitive to interpersonal undercurrents and may suffer severe anxiety about the security of his position. Most

company men never rise higher than middle management. Though "essential to the functioning of large corporations," they lack the characteristics required of top executives.

4. The Gamesman. Maccoby sees this type as "the emerging corporate leader," a risk-taker whose "main interest is in challenge" and whose "main goal in life is to be a winner." As the label suggests, he views life and work as a game, is "fascinated by technique and new methods," and takes delight in the "tactics and strategy" involved in the corporate contest. The gamesman surfaced in the 1960's when American industry needed leaders to push ahead with daring new technological advances. He tends to be likeable and engaging and to seem gregarious but enjoys autonomy; his attitudes are liberal but he is more pragmatist than idealist or social reformer.

According to Maccoby, the craftsman, the company man, and the gamesman all contribute something to the organization (though many corporations "could do without jungle fighters"), but the "creative gamesman" has the most to offer:

> Given our socioeconomic system, with its stimulation of greed, its orientation to control and predictability, its valuation of power and prestige above justice and creative human development, these fair-minded gamesmen may be as good as we can expect from corporate leaders.

Maccoby adds that the gamesman of the 1960's who went "all out to win," has toned down somewhat in the 1970's as the corporate emphasis has shifted from "overwhelming the opposition with innovation" to a more sober approach that involves reducing costs. The new corporate execu-

tive, he believes, "combines many gamesman traits with aspects of the company man."

Maccoby's ideas may be summarized as follows:

- Corporate managers may be classified into four ideal types, depending on their personality characteristics: the craftsman, the jungle fighter, the company man, and the gamesman.
- Although corporations need all four types (except, possibly, the jungle fighter, who is now comparatively rare), it is the gamesman (with some elements of the company man) who is emerging as the corporate leader.

A Theory of Roles and Theatres

Beginning with a definition of the term career as the sequence of major positions that a person occupies throughout life (with respect not only to paid employment but also to the areas of avocation, family, and civic affairs), Donald Super proposes a stage theory, with each stage "characterized by the special importance of certain social expectations." The stages are as follows:*

1. The Growth Stage: The child interacts with the home, neighborhood, and school environments; in this way, certain capacities, interests, and values are developed, while other potentials atrophy. "Occupational preferences in this stage tend to reflect emotional needs more than aptitude or genuine interest, and they tend either to be fixated or to change fairly often."

2. The Exploratory Stage: From adolescence to about the mid-20's, the individual explores various activities, roles, and situations,

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*Quotations in this section are from Super, 1975, pp. 21-26.

thereby further crystallizing his or her interests, aptitudes, and values. Tentative choices are made, and commitment becomes firmer as time passes.

3. The Establishment Stage: Most people in their mid-20's "find suitable paid employment," though some say "drift, flounder or explore for as many as ten years longer and some never achieve stable careers." Many people change jobs several times during this period; also, it should be noted that patterns differ for men and for women.

4. The Maintenance Stage: At about age 45, most people have settled into an occupation and even a particular job, and the tasks at this stage consist of "holding [one's] own against younger people, keeping up with new developments, forging ahead by breaking new ground. . . . or getting reestablished in the work force."

5. The Decline Stage: As people grow older, they tend to become less involved in their jobs and in their lives generally. This is the retirement period, and those people who have carried over their occupational and avocational activities and who thus are able to "preserve the continuity of roles and of life" are most likely to find retirement satisfactory.

Building on the foundation of this stage theory, Super further proposes that people play a number of different roles in each of the life stages. These roles are, in approximate order of dominance: (1) child, (2) student, (3) worker, (4) spouse, (5) parent, (6) homemaker, (7) citizen, (8) "leisurite," (9) annuitant, and (10) patient. Sometimes, the individual moves through these roles in sequence, but some roles are played more or less simultaneously.

Super uses a figure of speech to elucidate his concept:

> The simultaneous and sequential nature of these roles, together with waxing and waning during the course of the life cycle, can be depicted as a rainbow in which the bands of color vary in width at any one cross-section of the arc, and each individual's arc varies in width as it goes from birth at the left to death at the right with the rainbow. (Here the rainbow simile is inadequate and needs modification.) Near the horizon representing birth, for example, there is just <u>one</u> band, one role, that of child. At the other end, if life continues into the 80's or 90's there is often again just <u>one</u> band or role, that of patient in a comprehensive-care nursing home. But at the peak of the career and of the modified rainbow representing it there may be <u>as many as eight major bands in a wide arc</u>, for one person may play, more or less simultaneously, the roles of child to his aging parents, student in continuing education, worker in an occupation, spouse, parent, homemaker, citizen, and pursuer of leisure.

Super notes that each role carries with it certain expectations as to functions and behavior. Thus, the corporate executive is expected to carry out fairly high-level tasks and to supervise or manage the work of others, and he may be expected to dress conservatively and wear his hair fairly short. The university professor is expected to teach, do research, and write books; but he is permitted "to wear tweeds, slacks, turtleneck sweaters, and loafers in the classroom and on lecture platforms." Assembly-line workers are subject to rather rigid role ex-

pectations; whereas skilled gardeners have "control over work pace and schedule." According to Super:

> Roles shape people, and people shape roles in varying degrees, just as some people choose roles (e.g., many lawyers) and others are cast in them (e.g., many who clerk in family stores).

Another element is added to this role theory when Super introduces the concept of theatres "in which [a role] is typically but not uniquely played." There are five major theatres: (1) the home, (2) the community, (3) the school, (4) the workplace, and (5) the retirement community or home. Each of these can be further subdivided. For instance, the home comprises kitchen, playroom, study, and so forth; the community has service, recreational, welfare, health, and other facilities.

Finally, Super proposes that life space constitutes an overarching contruct encompassing the multiple roles which the individual plays and the theatres in which they are played. The world of work is evolving in such a way that soon large numbers of people will find themselves with enormous amounts of leisure time, according to Super. The life space will come to be dominated much less by the role of worker and by the theatre of the workplace. Thus, if life is to be meaningful, people will have to find "new roles in new theatres." It is urgent, says Super, that the concept of "career" be enlarged to include avocational as well as vocational pursuits.

Super's theories may be summarized as follows:

- Career development may be viewed in the context of the following life stages: growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance,

and decline.

- Throughout life, one plays a number of roles, either in sequence or simultaneously; the importance of particular roles waxes and wanes.
- Roles are typically played in different theatres.
- Life space is defined by roles and theatres.
- In the future, new roles and theatres other than that of worker and workplace will have to be given value and emphasis if people are to live satisfying and productive lives.

Perspectives on Sex Differences

Some theories and studies of career development emphasize differences between the sexes on such variables as attitudes toward job and career, drive to achieve, and work-related behavior. Often, such approaches involve analyzing these differences on the basis of early socialization patterns.

In our society, girls are traditionally brought up to be passive, dependent, and nurturant, whereas boys are brought up to be active, independent, and aggressive. Thus, women come to be inculcated by the "vicarious achievement ethic" (Lipman-Blumen & Leavitt, 1977). That is, they define their identities not through their own activities and accomplishments but through those of the dominant people (usually men) in their lives: at first, their fathers, later their husbands, still later their children. As a corollary of this tendency, they perceive themselves primarily in such roles as wife, mother, and homemaker; even the woman who has a job outside the home tends not to value or emphasize her role as worker. Men, on the other hand, are

governed by the direct achievement ethic. They tend to base their identities on their career achievements. They are "success objects," whose value as human beings is measured by their ability to provide for their families.

One implication of these differences is that the man's work usually takes precedence over the woman's. For instance, in a marriage where both partners work, the family must make a residential move if the husband is transferred by his company to another location but only in rare cases will the wife's occupational needs bring about drastic changes in the family's situation.

Some of these patterns are reflected in a recent study of women in middle management and top executive positions (Hennig & Jardim, 1977). Most of the women in the sample had made their career decision (defined as "a conscious commitment to advancement over the long term") ten years later than is generally true for men. For some of these women, that decision was in some sense a passive one, something that "just happened" when the woman suddenly realized that she was probably going to be working the rest of her life. These managerial women were inclined to attribute their success to luck or to the kindly intervention and encouragement of a superior. Nonetheless, most of them believed that further advancement would come about through their own efforts at self-improvement, their development of competence on the job. What these women lacked, according to Hennig and Jardim, is

> a sense of the organizational environment--the informal system of relationships and information sharing, ties of loyalty and of dependence, of favors granted and owed, of mutual benefit, of protection--which men unfailingly

and invariably take into account . . . (p. 12)

This difference is attributed in part to men having learned early in their lives to play games such as football that involve teamwork, the long-range goal of winning, and the use of short-term strategies with a view to reaching that goal. Women have little exposure to such sports, concentrating instead on such activities as swimming, tennis, and gymnastics that focus more on the display of competence and do not involve working with team members. Their failure to recognize the "team sport" aspects of the managerial career leads women to behave in certain ways that lessen their chances of success in the organization.

Hennig and Jardim specify the following behavioral differences between men and women in management. First, the sexes interpret "risk" differently, with women seeing only the immediate negative aspects (the danger of failure) and with men seeing not only negative but also long-range positive aspects (the opportunity for success and advancement). Second, in deciding on what style to use in playing the role of subordinate--helper, follower, junior colleague, equal, friend--men are more aware of the expectations of others, especially the boss, and choose a style that will satisfy those expectations, whereas women are inclined to adopt a "take-me-as-I-am" attitude. They are less skilled at dissembling than men are, again because they lose sight of the long-range goal of winning the (career) game. Finally, men take a more instrumental view of human relationships in the corporation and are thus more willing to work with people whom they may not like personally. On the other hand women often view human

relationships as an end in themselves; they cannot accommodate themselves so easily to the demands of such situations and thus lay themselves open to the charge of "overemotionalism" on the job.

A slightly different approach is taken by Rosabeth Kanter (1977), who looks at how the large corporation evolved historically to its present form, with men dominating the managerial ranks and women the clerical ranks. Kanter's analysis is based on two premises: (1) jobs create people rather than vice versa: that is, an organization's "structure forms people's sense of themselves and of their possibilities"; and (2) expectations about working women in general are derived from expectations about secretaries. One chapter of Kanter's book is devoted to the subculture of secretaries, whose relationship with their bosses constitutes an example of "patrimony": the traditional feudal system of lord and vassal.

Kanter's point is that the behavior of women as workers in large organizations is determined not by their sex but by their position of relative powerlessness in the structure. Unfortunately, the behavior patterns they are forced to develop as secretaries may carry over when they are promoted to managerial positions, where such patterns are no longer appropriate. In addition, these behavior patterns affect the expectations and stereotypes of other people about the behavior of all women workers.

The following major points can be made about sex-role differences with respect to career development and work behavior:

- Women and men are socialized differently in our society, and thus are prepared differently for the world of work.

- Women managers are often hampered by a failure to take a long-range view of the "career game" as men do.
- The work behavior of women is often determined by the structural demands of the job.

Summary Concepts

We have been looking at career development from a number of different perspectives, drawing on concepts offered by various theorists and researchers. In dealing with the problems of a particular individual or group, some of these concepts may be more relevant than others. The selective summary that follows is intended to suggest questions that might be raised as you consider the problems of the individuals as presented in the vignettes.

1. Congruence: Personalities and occupations can be classified according to the same typology. When person and occupation are congruent, the result is likely to be job satisfaction and stability; when the person has a job whose tasks and demands do not fit with that person's interests, competencies, and style, the result is likely to be dissatisfaction and a desire for change. Does the job seem congruent with the personality? If not, in what ways does it seem incongruent? What more appropriate kinds of occupations might be considered by the person?

2. Dreams: Typically, people of both sexes have dreams as they enter adulthood: visions of what they want the future to be like. With the passing of time, however, people find that those dreams have not come to pass. This realization is part of the mid-life crisis. As people experience a sense of disparity between their life structures

and their true selves, they may become depressed or desperate. To what extent does the person seem to be suffering from such a sense of disparity, of the dream betrayed? On whom does he/she seem to blame this betrayal: self, significant others, circumstances?

3. Professional Career Stages: People who have professional careers typically pass through several stages--apprentice, colleague, mentor, sponsor--each of which has its characteristic activities, relationships, and psychological issues. Failure to pass from Stage II (colleague) to Stage III (mentor) as one grows older is often taken to be a sign of lower performance. At what stage is the individual? How well is he/she resolving the issues of that stage?

4. Managerial Types: People in managerial positions can be classified as predominantly one of four types: the craftsman, the jungle fighter, the company man, and the gamesman. Though each type may have its place, it is the last--the gamesman--who is probably best adapted to the large modern corporation. Which type is the individual? What problems does he/she face as a result of belonging to a particular type?

5. Roles and Theatres: People play a variety of different roles in their lifetimes, either in sequence or simultaneously; these roles are played in a number of theatres. What roles does the individual play? Is he/she limited in number of roles? If multiple roles are involved, does the individual emphasize one to the exclusion of the other? Is there conflict among roles?

6. Sex Differences: Boys and girls are socialized differently in our society, with the result that they grow up to have different

expectations and attitudes about work. Moreover, the structure of the modern organization decrees different kinds of jobs and different work behavior for men and women. Frequently, these sex-role differences work to the disadvantage of women, particularly those aspiring to or holding high-level positions. To what extent do sex-role stereotypes and expectations play a part in the problems of the individual?

Videotape Activity and Assessment

Interviews with several people who came to career counselors for assistance were videotaped. (The actual videotape will be mailed to you if you send a blank cassette videotape to Educational Technology Center, University of Maryland, College Park, MD 20742, along with $5.00, plus mailing costs to cover handling.)

Either view the tape or read each vignette and then complete the Vignette Rating Form by indicating the two issues which are most clearly evident in each vignette. For example, if Vignette #1 seems most concerned with the issues of Dreams and Sex-Role Differentiation, put an X in each of the appropriate boxes and then make a brief notation of the supporting data to validate your assessment:

After you have completed the form, team up with another participant to compare and discuss your conclusions. Compare your partner's assessment with the form in Appendix A - if their assessment does not meet the requirement of 75% accuracy - have them redo their assessment.

VIGNETTE RATING FORM

Directions: For each vignette indicate the two issues which were most clearly demonstrated by marking an X in the appropriate box. Then briefly indicate supporting data for your assessment.

Vignettes	Congruence	Dreams	Professional Career Stages	Managerial Types	Roles-Theatres	Sex Differences
1. Man in Atypical Role						
2. Woman in 30-Year Crisis						
3. Man in Mid-Life Crisis						

Vignettes	Congruence	Dreams	Professional Career Stages	Managerial Types	Roles-Theatres	Sex Differences
4. Woman Wanting Upward Mobility						
5. Woman Whose Plans Are Based on Husband's Career						
6. Man Contemplating Mid-Career Change						
7. Woman Anticipating Retirement						

Vignettes	Congruence	Dreams	Professional Career Stages	Managerial Types	Roles-Theatres	Sex Differences
8. Woman Experiencing Sex Discrimination						
9. Man Approaching Retirement						

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Vignettes

Leibowitz: Hi, I'm Zandy Leibowitz and this is my colleague Nancy Schlossberg. We're both on the faculty in the Counseling and Personnel Services Department at the University of Maryland. Also I am presently involved in a Career Development Project at Goddard Space Flight Center.

What we're beginning to find is that settings such as Goddard, industrial government settings, are becoming legitimate kinds of locations, settings, for career development services for adults. In order for us to be better able to design these kinds of programs, we need to have a sense of what are the career development issues that adults are facing.

What we're going to try to do through this tape is show you, present to you, a variety of these concerns. We have several Goddard employees who have been gracious enough to allow themselves to be videotaped and to talk about some of the career development issues they're facing.

Before we look at these employees, though, Nancy is going to describe some general career development themes and issues that we have been concerned with.

Schlossberg: One of the things that we have found from talking to many adults is the issue of the dream. Is the dream that they had when they were young: Has that dream been realized, or has the work setting dulled that dream? Do they feel futile at the moment? Are they beginning to wonder: Is this all there is? Are they beginning

to see a gap between the dream of yesterday and the reality of today? This is the theme that we keep hearing about and looking for.

A second theme that adults seem to be expressing is the relationship between out-of-work balance and in-work life. How are their roles as parents (if they are parents), as community workers, in their leisure activities, balanced with their work life? Where is the energy being put? Where do they want to put their energy?

The third issue that we keep hearing about has to do with harmony. Is the work setting harmonious with the adult individual needs? Is the work setting a place where one can express oneself creatively? Or is it a place which becomes a dead-end, Monday-through-Friday misery?

These are the kinds of things we want to know about. These are the kinds of things we want to help adults deal with and resolve. These are the kinds of things that provide the basis for thinking about developing career centers for adults.

Vignette #1: Man in Atypical Role

I think the whole amount of energy that I've been putting into all of these things at once has definitely affected the development of the individuals in my family. Certainly it has affected my wife. One can't become as deeply involved in introspection and psychology and that sort of thing without changing. And she has not only noticed this but we've talked about it greatly. So I'm rapidly changing into a different person and, of course, she is still married to the same individual that she married a long time ago. And there has been a gread deal of introspection on her part as to "Hey, are we going in

Vignette #1 (cont.)

the direction that I want to go?"

She is beginning now to look into her own needs and her own wants. But I think that I've probably introduced a great deal of anxiety into her life. This is true of my children too. I've college-age children, and the idea of passing one of my--or the child passing his father on the campus and saying hello is an unusual one, and it's not one that they're always prepared for.

So to some extent I'm feeling a great deal of responsibility for having put myself into an atypical role. What I'm doing is not what fathers and husbands often do. I'd like to see if there is some way in which I can just relax the strain that I feel that this has introduced into their life. Part of it is stimulating. I'm certainly presenting some kind of a role model for the children to at least observe and accept or reject. And I'm not quite sure how that will come out. It may come out well and not necessarily so.

Vignette #2: Woman Experiencing 30-Year Crisis

Well, I thought it was a time in my life that I was questioning where I was going and what I wanted to do and I seem to be going through my 30-year crisis. And my goals as a young woman were to become a secretary and have a family and husband and raise children. And that goal seems--well, I've bypassed that goal because I've been married and I'm divorced now. I do have a child. I'm not a secretary any more. I'm in a professional series. And I'm well on my way to a career that I never dreamed about. And I guess I have some problems in looking into the future because I never thought about anything beyond my one dream as a young girl.

Vignette #3: Man in Mid-Life Crisis

What I'd like to talk to you about, Nancy, is something I've thought about in the past, in the recent past specifically. I'm a man about halfway into his life and so I've reached that point where--I'm no different from any other man--I've started giving a great deal of thought to who I am, where I've been and where I'm at, and where I'm going from here. I never received or got a whole lot of formal education. I was born and raised in West Virginia, and I never particularly liked school so I never finished. But it wasn't very long after I got out of school that I realized that I wasn't going to go very far, and I didn't particularly want to do for the rest of my life what I was doing at that time. One thing led to another, and I wound up eventually working for Goddard here, but during all the years in the back of my mind I had planned on going back to school and finishing; but once a man makes a commitment, particularly a rather large commitment to marriage, and responsibilities start piling up, it becomes more and more difficult, and you reach a point of no return or at least very difficult to turn about. So I am very acutely aware of how I've been limited and how far I can go. So I've reached this point in my life and I couldn't imagine myself on a program; I'm a technician.

At this point I reached 40; and this was fine when I was a younger man, but after I reached 40 or thereabouts, I started visualizing myself being an older man and still sitting on a bench and doing the things a technician does. So I got a chance to go into programming, software as averse to hardware, in the programming field,

Vignette #3 (cont.)

and this was a natural step and I grasped it. And I'm happy as a programmer, but what concerns me and what I'm concerned with naturally is my future, you know. I give it more and more thought as to what I'm going to do in the second half of my life, and this bothered me at first: Why I should be worrying about these types of things? But after talking to friends and acquaintances, I find out that this is a rather common thing. It's a natural thing at this point in my life to start thinking about things that I've been concerned with.

Vignette #4: Woman Wanting Upward Mobility

Well, I want to be discipline manager or administrative assistant, and right now that's far away from the field that I'm in, and what I need to work on is speech, and I guess I'm going to take up some training classes to improve my speech and leadership and so on. I like working with a lot of people, and I guess I just don't have the confidence to get started in that.

I won't be good at it. I'm kind of--well, I can't do that job, I keep telling myself. You don't have the abilities and everything, and it just turns me away, and I just say: Well, I'll just stick with what I have. But I really don't want to stay as a clerk typist. I do want to work my way up.

Vignette #5: Woman Whose Plans Are Based on Husband's Career

It's very hard for me to make plans because my husband's plans are what affects what I'm going to do with myself. If my husband decides he's going to stay in the area, then I could get a part-time job or a full-time job in something that I'd like. It was always going to be just a part-time situation, a part-time job for me, and working towards having a family, like I said, which hasn't materialized. We haven't been able to. Or I wanted to go back to school when we first moved to Maryland; that's going on three years ago. But we couldn't at that point in time because we didn't have the money. We do now--put away, but if he wants to quit his job, that money will have to go for living expenses until he finds something else, or the money will have to pay for a move to some other locale for a job there. It's been extremely difficult in trying to make up our minds--our minds, my husband's mind too, as to whether he wants to stay in a job that he doesn't really like.

Vignette #6: Man Contemplating Mid-Career Change

So what I'd like to do or discuss with you, or maybe it's an insight as to how I might go about having this career change happen and minimize the possible losses that I feel could very well occur to me as a result of making the change. Now I realize that some of this is my fault by not planning, say a career adequately. In fact, I got into the career that I'm in more or less by chance. You know, I majored in mathematics, started work here at Goddard, worked at a couple of agencies and built up quite a bit of time and also quite a bit of equity, and salary structure was commensurable to the ex-

Vignette #6 (cont.)

perience and the time I've put in. After getting into the field--and I really enjoy it--I've found though that there are other things that I like to do, and as a result, I've started pursuing other subject areas. And in pursuing these they naturally led me off into a field that's not even tangential to the field I'm currently in. But certainly if I can combine the two, it might have some benefits, and I think what I would like to do--if at all possible--would be to sever the career that I have in computers and get into this other career that I've been working on.

Vignette #7: Woman Anticipating Retirement

As a person, I would say, I'm close to retirement, and I have thought about retirement plans. My main concern is that my income won't be quite enough to live and live comfortably. So I'm thinking more in the area of part-time work and perhaps coming back to the government because in the outside world now after all these years, it may be very difficult at my age to get a job. I think there still is age discrimination, and I think that's what holds me back from going out into the world and saying: Oh I think I'll start a new career, and yet I really don't know. I'll have to try it and see. They may accept me. It's a little bit scary in a way. And yet I've thought about it many times, and I think to myself that all they can say is no. But we still hate to go out and be turned down on a job because of your age anyway. And I feel it would be handicap.

Vignette #8: Woman Experiencing Sex Discrimination

For instance, when I entered Goddard, both my husband and I were astronomers; we had about the same experience, the same education, and yet he came in at a grade higher. Now he had just come off of being the director of the tracking station in South Africa. However, in my past history I'd had managerial experience in a lab, I was manager of the lab and therefore, I think that should have counted as much as his. Yet he came in at a higher level, he was promoted faster and more times; and this matter of promotion has disturbed me for some time. I've been in the grade that I'm in now for many years, and I'm at the top level, and I don't know that there's much hope of my getting promoted to a higher grade; and yet I feel that I have produced as much or more than people around me who have gone on.

Vignette #9: Man Approaching Retirement

As a operating executive in the research and development environment, I have had a series of increasingly responsible jobs. I've been very satisfied. At this point--as I approach what normal executives view as retirement--I can't conceive of myself being anything other than very active and involved in some activity which is associated with the so-called knowledge industry. I can conceive, however, of making a change in the kind of work that I do. While the space program is very exciting and very challenging, I think that after you get through a series of occupations you reach a sort of plateau of what more you can contribute, and it seems to me that at that point both the organization and the individual need a change from

Vignette #9: (cont.)

each other. Therefore as I approach this plateau, I begin to make some plans and give some consideration to what I like to do as I consider a career change.

OBJECTIVE 2
NEEDS ASSESSMENT

OBJECTIVE TWO

OBJECTIVE: To demonstrate basic skills in assessing organizational needs.

ACTIVITIES:

1. Engage in introductory activity.
2. Study four-part model for needs assessment.
3. Complete assessment activity.

EVALUATION: Analyze needs assessment data using model guidelines, and design an organizational needs assessment plan.

OBJECTIVE TWO

ASSESSING ORGANIZATIONAL NEEDS

Introductory Needs Assessment Activity

Immagine that you have been hired as a consultant or assigned as an in-house specialist to design a career development program for a business/industrial setting. How would you determine the needs or concerns of the population and of the organization with which you will be working?

Participants in the module should divide up into small groups and spend about ten minutes discussing this problem and formulating a plan. Then choose a group spokesperson to describe the plan to the larger group.

Needs Assessment

As you discussed your plan for assessing the needs and concerns of the population and organization you will be working with, it probably became clear that program developers must consider organizational needs at the same time they are looking at the needs of the individual employees within the organization. This ability to orchestrate individual and organizational needs is essential since it is the organization that is funding the project. Questions such as "why a career development program?" "who will be served, and what problems are they concerned with?" must be raised. Through a needs assessment process, answers can be specified, needs documented, and programs made more relevant and responsive. In order to accomplish this process three sets of data must be collected: these include data on (1) individual employees (2) the organization's decision makers and (3) the organizational climate.

The first set of needs to be addressed are those of the individuals in the organization who will be the participants in and primary beneficiaries of career development services: Who are they? What are their concerns?

The second set of needs to be assessed are those of the organization's decision-makers. It is this small group of people who create the policies which shape an organization's environment and operations. They may actually hold controlling positions, for example a company president, or they may have informally established themselves as powerful decision makers while holding other positions such as head of personnel. They may support and encourage career development for a variety of reasons, such as concern over (1) the quality of working life for em-

ployees, (2) high turnover among highly skilled personnel, particularly in the first few years on the job, (3) a chronic shortage of capable managers, which may get more severe as the pool or people in the 35-44 age group declines, and (4) pressures for equal opportunity employment, including directives to hire and to create developmental plans for individuals hired under affirmative action policies. (Dyer, 1976)

Finally, any program that is developed will be influenced by the organizational context in which it takes place. The organizational climate and ethos differs depending on whether the organization is a government agency, a private industry, a university, or whatever.

A model for assessing these three sets of needs comprises four elements.

1. WHAT IS the current situation?
2. WHAT SHOULD BE the situation? What might be the ideal?
3. DISCREPANCY: What is the difference between WHAT IS and WHAT SHOULD BE?
4. NEED: What should be done to reduce discrepancy?

The following is an example of how this model might be applied:

1. WHAT IS: Employees are not aware of career options in their own organization.
2. WHAT SHOULD BE: Employees should be able to describe at least two options for themselves within the organization.
3. DISCREPANCY: The difference between being able to identify no options and being able to identify at least two.
4. NEED: To provide employees with easily comprehensible infor-

mation so they can begin to identify new options for themselves within the organization.

The model defines a need as "a gap between what is and what sould be." Needs assessment, then, is the "formal collection of gaps, the placing of gaps in priority order, and the selection of the gaps of highest priority for action and resolution" (Kaufman & English, 1976).

The process of identifying priority needs includes gathering data on what is and what should be and then making inferences about discrepancies and needs. The data collected should consider the perspective of individual employees, organizational decision-makers, and the organization itself. Needs should then be prioritized on the basis of strength, resources, and the interest of the program developer.

In short, the first step in initiating career development programs is to assess the needs of the target population, to understand the needs and views of organizational decision-makers, and to understand the organizational context in which the program will take place. The following chart (Figure 2) in intended to clarify this process; it describes various strategies for collecting needed information. As you can see, discrepancies and needs cannot be determined until data are collected on "what is" and "what should be."

FIGURE 2

Needs Assessment Model

	Target Population	Organizational Decision-Makers	Organization
What Is	Spedify target population: e.g., top managers, mid-level professionals, support personnel Describe the target population in terms of demographic data: e.g., age, sex, educational background, occupation. Decide which technique or combination of techniques to use in collecting data: e.g., interviews, questionnaires/surveys, tests, group interviews, job analysis and performance review, and records and reports study.	Identify the organizational decision-makers in charge of your potential program. Familiarize yourself with the philosophies of the decision-makers and with their past program support efforts. If relevant, identify primary funding sources like congressional authorizations and pending legislation which might affect the organization.	Find out as much as possible about the characteristics of the work force in general: e.g., age, sex, attrition and growth rates. Familiarize yourself with all written materials about the organization by looking specifically for program trends and long-term projections. Identify other programs which might interface with your projected program, since complementary rather than duplicative efforts will increase the likelihood of support for your program. Familiarize yourself with trade publications and journals reflecting the occupational areas encompassed by the organizatior

FIGURE 2 (cont.)

Needs Assessment Model (cont.)

	Target Population	Organizational Decision-Makers	Organization
What Should Be	Analyze data from needs assessment technique	Conduct interviews with top and middle managers to get their ideas on the organization's future and the critical needs of employees at various levels. Conduct interviews with selected employees to get their perceptions of decision-makers' priorities.	Identify and meet with individuals in other organizations already engaged in similar activities so that you can build on their successes and failures.
Discrepancy			
Need			

In looking at the previous chart under the column, target population, several techniques to be used to collect "what is" information are listed. These techniques and procedures include interviews, questionnaires/surveys, tests, group interviews, job analysis and performance review and records and reports study. The following chart (Figure 3) summarizes the advantages and disadvantages of each of these and also provides do's and don't's for program developers. Also, an example of a survey instrument used to collect needs assessment data for a career planning program at the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, Goddard Space Flight Center is displayed in Appendix B.

FIGURE 3

NEEDS ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUES

METHOD	ADVANTAGES	LIMITATIONS	DO'S AND DONT'S
Interview	Reveals feelings, causes, and possible solutions of problems as well as facts. Affords maximum opportunity for free expression of opinion, giving of suggestions.	Is time-consuming, so can reach relatively few people. Results may be difficult to quantify. Can make subject feel "on the spot."	Pretest and revise interview questions as needed. Be sure interviewer can and does listen, doesn't judge responses. Do not use to interpret, sell, or educate.
Questionnaire/Survey	Can reach many people in short time. Is relatively inexpensive. Gives opportunity of expression without fear or embarrassment. Yields data easily summarized and reported.	Little provision for free expression of unanticipated May be difficult to construct. Has limited effectiveness in getting at causes of problems and possible solutions.	Pretest and revise questions and form as needed. Offer and safeguard anonymity. Use only if prepared to - - report findings, both favorable and unfavorable. - do something about them.
Tests	Are useful as diagnostic tools to identify specific areas of deficiencies. Helpful in selecting from among potential trainees those who can most profitably be trained. Results are easy to compare and report.	Tests validated for many specific situations often not available. Tests validated elsewhere may prove invalid in new situations. Results give clues, are not conclusive. Tests are second-best evidence in relation to job performance.	Know what test measures. Be sure it is worth measuring here. Apply results only to factors for which test is good. Don't use tests to take blame for difficult or unpopular decisions which management should make.
Group Interview	Same as for interview plus: Permits synthesis of different view-points. Promotes general understanding and agreement. Builds support for needed training. Is in itself good training.	Is time-consuming and initially expensive. Supervisors and executives may feel too busy to participate, want work done for them Results may be difficult to quantify.	Do not promise or expect quick results. Start with problem know to be of concern to group. Identify all problems of significant concern to group. Let group make own analysis, set own priorities.

FIGURE 3 (cont.)

Job Analysis and Performance Review	Produces specific and precise information about jobs, performance. Is directly tied to actual jobs and to on-job performance. Breaks job into segments manageable both for training and for appraisal purposes.	Time-consuming. Difficult for people not specifically trained in job analysis techniques. Supervisors often dislike reviewing employees' inadequacies with them personally. Reveals needs of individuals but not those based on needs of organization.	Brush up on job-analysis techniques, arrange special training for those who are to do it. Be sure analysis is of current job, and current performance. Review with employee both- - analysis of job, and - appraisal of performance.
Records and Reports Study	Provide excellent clues to trouble spots. Provide best objective evidence of results of problems. Are usually of concern to and easily understood by operating officials.	Do not show causes of problems, or possible solutions. May not provide enough cases (e.g., grievances) to be meaningful. May not reflect current situation, recent changes.	Use as checks and clues, in combination with other methods.

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Assessment Activity

1. Read the two cases below.

   a) You have been hired to set up a Career Development Program in a research and development organization that expanded rapidly in the space age of the sixties. It is now in a no-growth period. The majority of employees are in technical and engineering fields. A third are age 45 or above; over half are mid-level or above. The organization has moved from pure space research to the application of space technology to areas of environmental control.

   b) You have been hired as a Woman's Coordinator in a major corporation. Up until now, no women have been employed as top executives. Only 2 percent are employed as mid-level managers. The majority of women work in clerical jobs.

2. In small groups, start to construct a profile of needs based on the case data just given. Use the chart (Figure 4) on the next page to organize the data.

FIGURE 4 - DATA NEEDS PROFILE

	Target Population	Decision-Makers	Organization
What is			
What Should Be			
Discrepancy			
Need			

3. What boxes were you not able to fill in at this time? What specific steps would you take to acquire the missing data? Assume you are competing for the position of Program Director in one of these organizations. Candidates will be evaluated on the basis of the detailed needs assessment plan that you submit. The plan should comprise the four model components: e.g., what is, what should be, discrepancy, need. Develop the plan in small groups, with one person assuming the candidate role.

4. Have the candidate from each small group present the group's plan to the larger group. The larger group should then choose the candidate they would hire, on the basis of the following criteria:

   completeness of proposal: were all points covered?

   feasibility: can it be done?

   information provided: does the needs assessment provide the critical information for program planning?

OBJECTIVE 3
PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

OBJECTIVE THREE

OBJECTIVE: To outline a plan for a career development program to be implemented in a business/industrial setting.

ACTIVITIES:

1. Read descriptions of actual programs.
2. Review program design considerations.
3. Complete a Program Planning Worksheet.

EVALUATION: Design a strategy/rationale/plan for "selling" the program to the organization's management.

OBJECTIVE THREE

SPECIFYING PROGRAM PLANS

During the last few years, career development programs have proliferated in business and industry. Although they share a common generic designation, these programs vary considerably in content, purpose, and emphases.

Figure 5 illustrates one way of viewing the variety of these programs: as a continuum, with career planning at one extreme and career management at the other. Career planning programs focus on individual plans and actions; they include such activities as individual counseling, workshops, and consultation through a career resource center. Career management programs are primarily organizational in focus; they emphasize such activities as performance evaluation, assessments of man/womanpower, and supervisor training.

The major shortcoming of career planning programs is that they may not be sufficiently integrated into the organizational structure. That is, individuals are encouraged to make their own career decisions, but the organization does not assume any responsibility for the further development of the individual nor does it offer employees any support in actualizing their plans. The major shortcoming of career management programs is that they may be "top-down" efforts. That is, they allow management to assess the organization's needs and then to make plans for individual employees without giving attention to the individual's career goals and plans. Frequently the result is "career passivity"; employees perceive that they have no control over their own career decisions.

The most effective career development programs strike a balance between these extremes. They attempt to increase the organization's efficiency and productivity by promoting congruence between individual and organizational goals. The result is a "mutual plotting" effort: The organization determines its own needs, individual employees are given the opportunity to plot their own careers, and then these two data points are matched up or aligned.

A Look at Actual Programs

Where do actual programs fall on the continuum from career planning to career management? The following chart shows the placement of the four examples discussed in this section. In addition, Figure 6 gives a more detailed description of three of the four programs.

Career Planning _____ Career Management

Program A Program B Program C Program D

Program A stands at the career planning end of the continuum, focusing on individual rather than organizational needs. Its primary objective is to enable participants to develop life and career plans. Each year, approximately 100 employees--including scientific, technical, and clerical personnel--are helped to assess their interests, abilities, and values so that they may plan for the future. The program is based on an eclectic model rather than on any single theory of or approach to career development. In-house specialists conduct workshops which are heterogeneous in composition, involving

FIGURE 5

A CONTINUUM OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

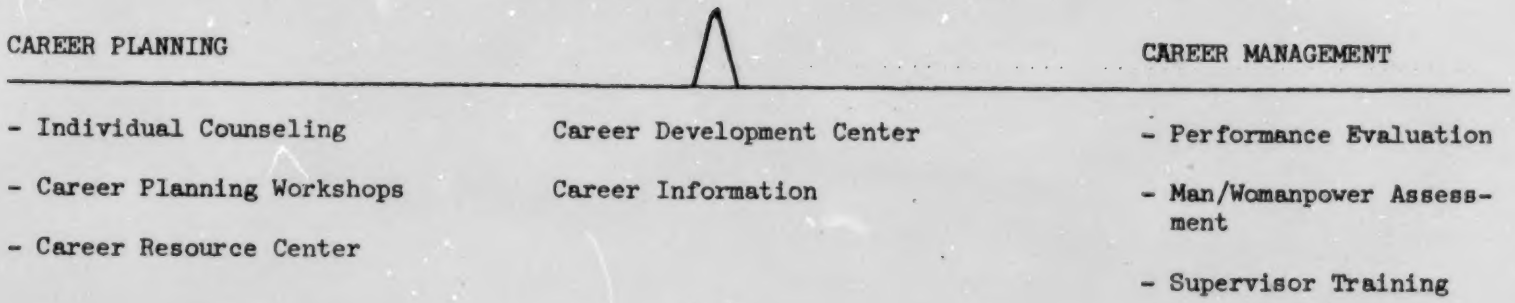

FIGURE 6

THREE EXAMPLES OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

	Program A	Program B	Program C
Program Emphasis	Career planning	Career planning	Career planning and career management
Target Population	Scientific Technical Clerical Services	Secretaries, clerical support, and other non-exempt employees	Scientific Technical Clerical Individual Employees Supervisors
Needs Assessment		Questionnaire survey	Questionnaire survey
Theoretical Model	Eclectic	Tiedeman & O'Hara model	Holland's congruence model
Program Design			
- objectives	Life/career planning	Life/career planning	Individual's life/career planning Supervisor's career development skills
- staffing	In-house specialists	Outside consultants	University-based professionals
- process/ strategy	- workshop - experiential group process - psychometric instruments	- workshop - experiential activities - homework - psychometric instruments	- individual counseling - workshops - experiential activities - homework - Career Development Work Experience - psychometric instruments - skills assessment

FIGURE 6 (cont.)

THREE EXAMPLES OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

Program Design (cont.)	Program A	Program B	Program C
- evaluation	One-year follow-up questionnaire completed by employees and line supervisors	Goal Attainment Scaling	Goal Attainment Scaling; productivity increases; follow-up on action plans
- number/ scheduling	Participants/yr., 114; total hours, 37; duration, 6 weeks	12 participants/workshop; 6 workshops/year duration, 7 weeks	12 participants/workshop; duration, 7 weeks 12 participants per supervisor/workshop; 3 sessions once a month
- career information	Library staffed by career specialist		Career Resource Center using "do-it-yourself" process and library

employees of all types, and which feature experiential activities and the use of psychometric instruments such as the Strong-Campbell Vocational Interest Blank. The program is evaluated by means of a one-year follow-up questionnaire completed by the employees who participated in the program and by their line supervisors. One such follow-up assessment indicated that managers regarded the program as a good use of the employee's time, leading in many instances to improved morale.

Program B is similar to Program A in that it too focuses on the individual, helping secretaries, clerical support personnel, and other "nonexempt" employees with their career decisions. The theoretical basis of the program is the Tiedeman and O'Hara decision-making model (1963), according to which all decisions have two major stages. The first stage, anticipation, includes such activities as assessing one's own interests, values, and skills; exploring and developing alternatives; and choosing among these alternatives. The second stage, implementation, begins when one moves into the new situation and gradually grows confident in it. (For further information on the Tiedeman-O'Hara model, also see the Emphasis Series, Forrer, et al., 1977). The program staff--which consists of outside consultants contracted to carry out the program--uses psychometric instruments, workshops, homework, and other strategies to guide participants through the stages of the decision-making process, with the ultimate goal of facilitating their upward mobility. Program evaluation takes the form of completion of a Goal Attainment Scaling form (see Objective Four); past evaluations show that a clear

majority of program participants meet their individual career goals.

Program C occupies a mid-point on the continuum in that the emphasis is not only on helping individual employees with their life/career planning but also on helping line managers learn career development techniques that they can use with their subordinates. The theoretical basis for the program is Holland's congruence model (described in Objective One of this module). Through workshops, individuals assess themselves and their job environments; in addition, the program features a career resource center, designed to allow employees to select for themselves materials that will help them to know themselves better and to learn more about the occupational world. One important component of Program C is a "Work Experience" program whereby mid-level employees work in a new career area for three months; this experience is intended to reenergize the employees and to give them a greater sense of control over their careers. Three methods are used in evaluating Program C: (1) Goal Attainment Scaling, (2) assessment of productivity increases; and (3) tracking of supervisors on individual employee action plans.

Program D stands at the other end of the continuum as an example of a career management program where the focus is on the aims and needs of the organization rather than on those of the individual. Briefly, the stated objectives of this program are to increase productivity and job satisfaction, to facilitate affirmative action, and to product effective relations between the organization and its professional-technical workers. The person who manages the program for the individual participant and who acts as a career planning consul-

tant is that employee's supervisor.

To summarize, Figure 6 outlines the components necessary in developing a program and gives examples of what specific form these components may take in different programs. As is clear from the descriptions, various strategies and methods are possible for realizing a program's objectives. The individualization of a program requires an in-depth understanding on the part of the program designer of the needs of both the organization and its population.

Other Business/Industry Programs

In addition to career development programs, business and industry have in recent years been offering a variety of related programs designed to humanize the work environment, with the ultimate goal of maintaining a satisfied and productive work force. Among the most notable of these efforts are redesign of the work environment and educational programs.

Perhaps the most well-known of the work-redesign programs is that initiated by AT&T over ten years ago. The goal of this program is to give employees a greater sense of control over their lives and careers. The strategy employed is termed functional completeness and involves arranging work tasks so that one individual is given complete responsibility for, and is identified with, one particular job. For instance, instead of having twenty people work on one directory and complete the job in three weeks, one person is assigned the job and given a longer period of time to work on it. As another example, one person may be given the job of installing or repairing the telephones in an entire apartment complex or at an airport. Thus, one individual is

responsible for making all the decisions and carrying out all the operations associated with a particular job. Presumably, what might be lost in efficiency is balanced by the increase in job satisfaction. (For a more complete review of work-redesign programs, see Work in America, 1973, see Appendix A).

Education programs are clearly related closely to career development programs in their goals and objectives. As the concept of recurrent education, or lifelong learning, becomes more widely accepted by society as a whole, so business and industry have come to recognize that they must provide educational assistance programs to their employees. A recent study, Education in Industry (Lusterman, 1977) reviewed the training and education programs of a sample of industries with 500 employees or more. They found that industry increasingly views education and training as a means to "translate the general skills of newly hired employees into more particular job competencies, and to ensure the continuing adaptation of its work force to new knowledge and technology" (Lusterman, 1977, p. ix).

At the same time, educational institutions are beginning to adapt their policies and practices to accommodate adults. For instance, some are experimenting with more flexible ways of assigning credit: e.g., the College Entrance Examination Board examinations, the College Level Examination Program (CLEP). Another such effort is the Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning, sponsored by the Educational Testing Service, which involves sixty institutions working together to develop and coordinate ways of systematically giving credit for life experiences. Yet another approach is the awarding of credit

for courses taught by non-academic institutions. The American Council on Education, which spearheaded this move by recommending that academic credit be given for courses taken through the military services, is currently working on ways to evaluate courses taught in a variety of other settings.

In addition, many education institutions are experimenting with different structures designed to facilitate the adult's return to education: e.g., part-time, evening, and weekend programs. Other institutions have introduced innovative curricula. All these efforts will help to strengthen the vital link between education and work.

Program Design Considerations

How does one begin to design a program for a particular setting and clientele?* The actual programs described earlier give some idea of the range of strategies that may be used. The characteristics of the target population, budget constraints, and questions of implementation all serve as a framework within which the details of a particular program must be worked out.

The following steps should be taken in specifying program plans:

1. Define the target population.

   What are their demographic characteristics: e.g., age range, sex distribution? What are their social-psychological characteristics: e.g., educational level, attitudes, values? These questions can be answered through (a) research in the literature and (b) needs assessment.

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*For a more detailed description of program design and implementation, see Schlossberg, Troll, Leibowitz (1978).

Example: Suppose your target population is women faculty members in higher education. What are their demographic and social-psychological characteristics?

2. Define your "images of potentiality" or ideal program (Fox, Lippitt, & Schindler-Rainman, 1975).

   What do you regard as the ideal situation for this target population? What goal or condition do you hope they will achieve as a result of the program?

   Example: More women faculty members should be promoted to high administrative positions in academic institutions: e.g., college presidencies, chairs of governing boards.

3. Study other programs developed for similar target populations. Do research into other programs similar to the one you plan; if possible, visit these programs and interview the people involved.

4. Turn the images of potentiality into program goals.

   Example: The goal of my program is to increase the number of women college presidents by 5 percent within a two-year period.

5. Turn program goals into behavioral objectives.

   Example: One objective of the program is to identify women faculty members whose background, interests, and abilities qualify them to be college presidents. A second objective is to create a more receptive attitude toward women in high academic offices on the part of the present (predominantly male) leadership in higher education.

6. Select one aspect of the objective to work on.

   Example: Choose a particular geographical region, identify the major academic institutions in that region, and identify the qualified women faculty members working in those institutions.

7. Select appropriate strategies for implementing the program.

   Example: Hold periodic meetings with the women faculty members identified as being qualified. These meetings should emphasize the following: (a) cognitive framework of the problem: whey women have difficulty achieving; (b) support from the other women in the group and from role models (women already holding college presidencies); (c) training in such skills as management and budgeting; and (d) linkages between qualified women and university selection committees.

8. Decide who will deliver the program.

   Example: Will the program be staffed by in-house specialists or contractors; will you use a peer helping model?

9. Develop an evaluation design.

   Specify criteria that will let you know how well the program has worked.

10. Analyze those forces that help or hinder achievement of the goal.

    Example: Hindering forces might include: (a) the tradition of male leadership in higher education, (b) lack of funding for the program. Helping forces might include the support of major organizations such as the Association of American

Colleges and the American Council on Education.

11. Try to minimize the hindering forces and to capitalize on the helping forces.

    Example: If lack of funding for the program is a problem, work with support groups of women faculty members and with major organizations involved in programs to develop women leaders in seeking grant funds.

12. Develop a budget.

13. Develop an implementation plan.

Assessment Activity

1. Using the guidelines just outlined as "program design considerations," complete the Program Planning Worksheet (Figure 7) on the next page. Give as many details as possible about the program you would like to implement.

2. Spend about 15 minutes developing a strategy/plan/rationale that will help "sell" the program you've developed to the top management of an organization. Form small groups. Each member of the group should present a 3-minute "pitch" to the other group members who will play the role of a management council. The group should also review each participant's Program Planning Worksheet. The effectiveness of each person's program and "pitch" will be determined by the management council's decision to fund or not to fund the program. In making this decision, the management council should use the following criteria:

    a) feasibility of program

b) extent to which it is integrated with other organizational programs

c) program balance between individual and organizational needs

d) potential employee and management receptivity to program

FIGURE 7

PROGRAM PLANNING WORKSHEET

Target Population:	
Needs Assessment: (See Objective 2)	
Ideal Program:	
Similar Programs:	
Program Goals:	

FIGURE 7 (cont.)

PROGRAM PLANNING WORKSHEET (cont.)

Program Design:	
Objectives:	
One Aspect of Objective to be Worked on:	
Strategies/ Process:	
Staffing	
Evaluation:	

FIGURE 7 (cont.)

PROGRAM PLANNING WORKSHEET (cont.)

Hindering Forces:

Helping Forces:

Budget:

Implementation Plan:

First Step	When	Who

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OBJECTIVE 4
PROGRAM EVALUATION

OBJECTIVE IV
EVALUATING PROGRAMS

OBJECTIVE:

Outline a program evaluation plan.

ACTIVITIES:

Review program evaluation requirements, complete requirements form.

Read description of program data categories.

Complete post Goal Attainment Scaling Form.

EVALUATION:

Design a tentative program evaluation plan specifying three strategies/techniques and how the information provided can be used.

OBJECTIVE IV
EVALUATING PROGRAMS

In order to maintain a program and to continue its support, program effectiveness will have to be measured and reported. Program evaluation must be included as an integral component of program planning; it "is a planned process which provides specific reliable information about a selected topic, problem or question for purposes of determining value and/or making decisions" (U.S. Civil Service Commission [n.d.], p. ii).

To insure program evaluation utility, it must occur on an ongoing basis and interact with the other components of program design. There must be constant feedback and revision between the four areas of needs assessment, program goals, and objectives, program activities and program evaluation. Some of the relationships between these four areas are shown in the chart (Figure 8) below:

FIGURE 8

Evaluation Is an Integral Part of a Program		
Why ?	Needs Assessment	What needs can you cite that justify the existence of this program?
What?	Program Goals & Objectives	To what needs are the goals of the program related? Of what goals are the objectives of the program a part?
How?	Program Activities	What activities will most likely meet the objectives? How will you plan and carry out activities that will accomplish the objectives?
How Will You Know?	Program Evaluation	What kinds of information should be gathered to determine if the activities are reaching the objectives and consequently meeting the needs?

(California State Department of Education, 1977)

Requirements of Program Evaluation

The first set of questions to be asked when designing an evaluation plan include: Who needs the data, what kind of information do they want and when do they want it. Answering these questions is critical

because the "ultimate requirememt of evaluation is to serve the needs of the audiences to [whom] the program director is accountable" (California State Department of Education, 1977).

Also, these answers will help in determining the kind of data to be collected and the way in which it will be reported. This information can be determined by meeting with all decision makers related to the program.

Activity: Program Evaluation Requirements

In small groups--assume you have just started as an in-house consultant responsible for designing a career planning program for a large organization involved in communication systems and networks. The majority of employees are scientists, engineers, and a large clerical support staff. Most of the organizational activity is research and development work rather than production of something tangible. The emphasis of your career development program will be to help mid-level professionals who feel boxed-in to expand their options. You will be responsible to the Vice President of Human Resources but informally accountable to the Personnel Director. In designing your program, you are trying to anticipate evaluation questions. You know this important information; the contract you have with the organization is for one year contingent on results. As a group, complete the following chart (Figure 9), anticipating the events of the next year. Try to anticipate the kind of data you will have to collect to make your evaluation.

FIGURE 9

EVALUATION INFORMATION REQUIREMENTS FORM

Who Requires Information	What Information is Required	Date Required	Use to Be Made of Information

Share completed forms with large group and discuss.

Data to be Collected

In the previous activity, you probably described several kinds of data you will collect for your evaluation. They can be categorized into the three areas of: reaction, learning, behavior and organizational results (Kirkpatrick, 1959). Reaction and learning data are collected immediately after a program activity; benavior and organizational results are longer term measurements.[1]

Again, the information obtained from program decision makers will help to determine which of these categories are relevant. If program decision makers are interested in improving a program, reaction and learning data are probably most relevant. On the other hand, if evaluation data is to be used to make decisions regarding the future of the program, behavior and organizational change data are important.

Reaction data is that information collected which evaluates the effectiveness of various activities and procedures used to achieve various program outcomes, and could include measures such as participant evaluation of instructor skills, This information can be collected through anecdotal or questionnaire form. Questionnaires can be translated to percentage data - i.e., what percentage of participants found a certain activity helpful. In the past, program evaluators have relied heavily on this subjective information. It is critical data in looking at the content of a program, but it offers

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1. These categories are also referred to as process and product data. Reaction data would be process; learning and behavior and organizational change are product data.

no objective information to an organization about behavior acquisition or generalizable effects of a program. Learning data is that information gathered immediately after a program activity to determine whether the participants acquired the intended skills or learnings. This data can be collected through such measures as Goal Attainment Scaling, tests, behavior samples or simulations.

Behavior and organizational change data are the assessment of longer term results, e.g., how did participation in a career development goal affect an employee's productivity?

These are the results or effects of a program. Particularly in industrial and business settings, this kind of data is critical. Organizations make decisions based on the bottom line of cost effectiveness - for so much money what will be the tangible results obtained. Unfortunately many career planning programs in other settings have been able to exist in the past on "articles of faith." They were believed to be a good thing to do. If the movement of career development programs into business/industrial settings is to continue, program developers will continue to be hard pressed to collect organizational change data.

- Following is a chart (Figure 10) which summarizes the categories of program evaluation data, how to collect the data and when.

FIGURE 10

PROGRAM EVALUATION DATA

Data Category	How to Collect	When to Collect
Reaction	questionnaires interviews	immediately after program
Learning	Goal Attainment Scaling tests questionnaires behavior samples simulations interviews	immediately after program
Behavior and Organization Change	questionnaires - supervisors, employees and co-workers productivity changes - i.e., increase in number of reports performance changes - i.e., assess changes in performance based on regular or on-going required supervisor evaluations	collected after a certain time period

The challenge for program evaluators is to be able to identify and use measures which are both meaningful and as much as possible quantifiable. Organizations are used to making decisions based on hard data. In viewing the previous chart, it is clear that the number of instruments or measures which meet these two criteria are at a minimum.

One evaluation technique which does seem to meet both criteria is Goal Attainment Scaling (Kiersuk and Sherman, 1968).

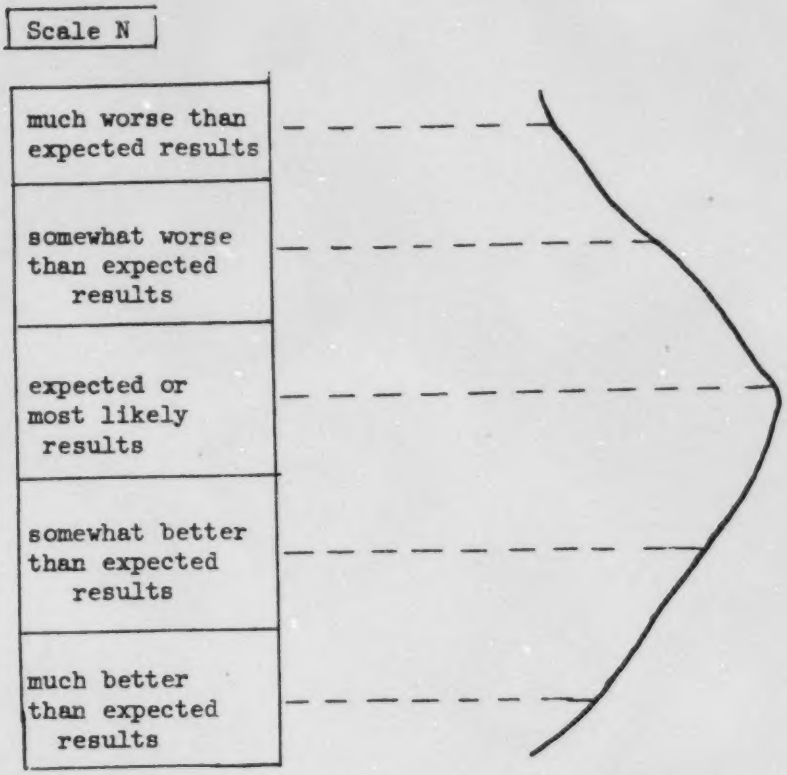
Goal Attainment Scaling (GAS) - An Example of Learning Data

GAS is an assessment technique which can be used to evaluate the extent of learning for individuals and groups after participation in certain program activities. It maintains the individuality of participant goals but at the same time provides a quantifiable score for comparison purposes. *

At the beginning of this module you filled in a GAS guide. If you'll review this form now, you'll note that the form contains individualized 5 point scales. These scales are operationally defined as -2, -1, 0, +1, +2 where the zero scale value represents an "expected outcome level." A goal of better than expected would be +2. Scale values of -1 and -2 represent less than expected success and the most unfavorable outcome, respectively. These scales can be converted to standardized scores with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 in order to determine pre-post assessment of goal attainment.

* This technique is an example which we selected as an illustration since other techniques have been extensively described elsewhere. See especially Coursey, Program Evaluation For Mental Health. Grune & Stratton, N.Y., 1977.

These scales are predictions of future performance as a result of a learning experience. One way to look at these prediction categories is below:


Scale N
much worse than expected results
somewhat worse than expected results
expected or most likely results
somewhat better than expected results
much better than expected results

The middle level represents the "expected results" and usually has the most likely probability of occurring. The outcomes at both the "much worse than expected" or "much better than expected" levels will usually have much lower probabilities. Intermediate probabilities are associated with the levels of "somewhat worse than expected" and "somewhat better than expected" (Garwick, 1975).

Activity: Goal Attainment Scaling

Step 1 - Go back to the GAS form you completed in the beginning of the module.

Step 2 - For each goal you described, check where you are now along

the 5 point scale. In the preassessment activity you indicated where you were with an asterisk (*), for this post assessment use a check (✓).

Step 3 - Compute your pre score and your post score. See the sample on the next page (Figure 11). The process for determining the pre and post score is to multiply the number of goals at each level by the score value of that level (-2, -1, 0, +1, +2). For instance, if you checked that you were at the "much less than expected level" for each of 3 goals, and the "somewhat less than expected level for 1 goal your pre score would be -7, 3 x (-2) = 6 and 1 x (-1) = -1, TOTAL = -7

If your post analysis indicated that you were at the "somewhat more than expected level" for 3 goals and the "much more than expected" level for 1 goal your post score would be +5, 3 x (+1) = 3 and 1 x (+2) = 2, TOTAL = 5

Pre Score _____

Post Score _____

Step 4 - Locate your pre scores and post scores on the standardized conversion tables (Figure 12) on page 95.

Following the example presented, you would look under the table for 4 goals and look across the top until you locate -7. The standard score for -7 would be 24.59.

The post score of 5 translates to 68.15

Pre Standard Score _____

Post Standard Score _____

FIGURE 11

GOAL ATTAINMENT SCALING

	Goal #1	Goal #2	Goal #3	Goal #4	
	Learn About Needs Assessment Techniques				
Much less than the expected level of outcome (-2)	I expect to learn about 0 needs assessment techniques				3 x (-2) = -6 1 x (-) = -1 Pre Score = -7
$\bar{x}$ = 50 s.d.=10 Somewhat less than the expected level of outcome (-1)	I expect to learn about and be able to describe 1 needs assessment technique				
Expected level of outcome (0)	I will learn about and be able to describe 2 needs assessment techniques				
Somewhat more than the expected level of outcome (+1)	I will be able to design # needs assessment procedure for my setting/clientele				3 x (+1) = 3 1 x (=2) = 2 Post Score = 5
Much more than the expected level of outcome (+2)	I will be able to design, implement, collect data, and analyze data using 2 needs assessment techniques				

* Pre assessment; i.e., where you were at beginning.
Post assessment; i.e., where you are now.

FIGURE 12

GAS Standard Score Conversion Table

- Scores for Goal Attainment Forms with 3 Goals

-6	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.64	27.20	31.76	36.32	50.88	45.44	50.00	54.56	59.12	63.68	68.24	72.80	77.36

11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
62.93	64.16	65.34	66.52	67.70	68.88	70.06	71.24	72.42	73.60	74.78	75.96

- Scores for Goal Attainment Forms with 4 Goals

-8	-7	-6	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4
20.96	24.59	28.22	31.85	35.48	39.11	42.74	46.37	50.00	53.63	57.26	60.89	64.52

5	6	7	8
68.15	71.78	75.41	79.04

From Garwick, Geoffrey and Joan Brentnall, Tables for Calculating the Goal Attainment Score, Minneapolis, Minnesota: Program Evaluation Resource Center, 1973.

Step 5 - How would you describe the change from pre to post? In the example the change was more than four standard deviations toward the positive end of the scale, i.e., 68.15-24.59=43.56 (s.d.=10)

The post score 68.15 can also be viewed as almost two standard deviations above the mean.

Describe your pre to post change:

Step 6

- Form small groups

  Determine the total number of goals set for each group, i.e., if there are 4 people in your group and each person set four goals, the total would be 16.

Number of Group Goals:

Count the number of goals for the group checked at 0, +1, or +2. These are considered to be successes.

Number of Group Goals at Expected Level or Above:

- Finally, to determine the percentage of group goals successfully achieved, divide those at the expected level or above by the total.

$$\frac{\text{expected level or above}}{\text{total}} =$$

NOTE: The mean post group goal you are aiming for is 50.00. See Appendix C: Summarizing and Displaying Pre-Post Goal Attainment Scaling Scores for an example.

Beginning Program Evaluation Steps - Assessment Activity

- Individually complete the chart below. Based on what you've learned in this module list three program evaluation strategies or techniques you are now considering. Also, how will you use the information provided by the strategy; what questions will it help you answer?

Tentative Evaluation Plan List Three Strategies/ Techniques	How Will You Use the Information Provided by the Strategy?
1. 2. 3.	

Discuss in large group.

Program Evaluation Notes: See Appendix D for copy of Program Evaluation Planning Form which includes program evaluation steps and questions needed to be answered for each step. A blank form is also included for your use.

See Appendix E for a suggested final report outline.

SUMMARY

Summary

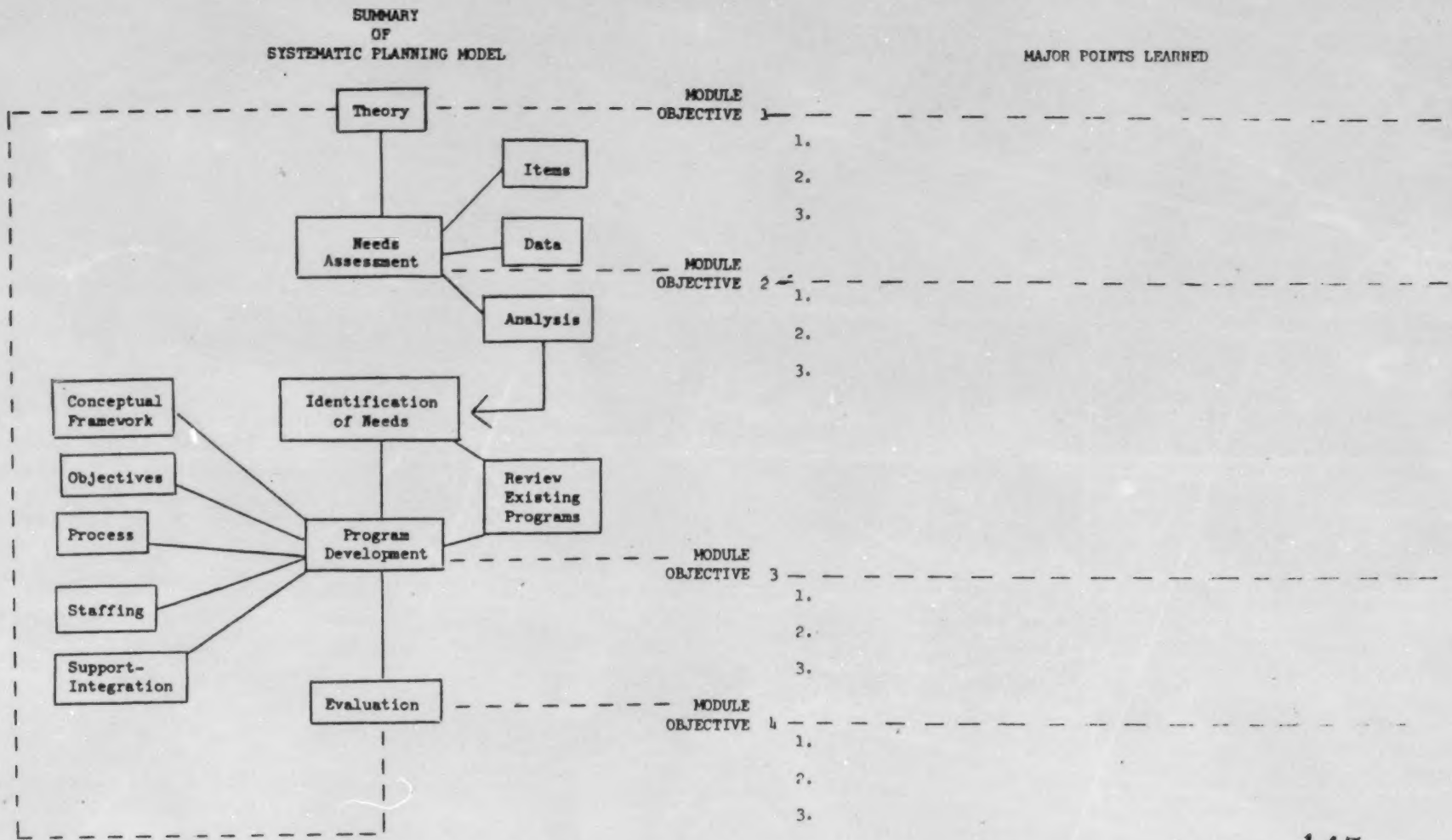
This module presented an introduction to the skills and concepts necessary for counselors to move into organizational settings. The module learnings and activities have been based upon a systematic planning model. The following schema summarizes this approach and emphasizes the integration of the steps.

Summary Activity

In groups use the schema (Figure 13) as a base for summarizing your learnings. You have a place to list three major concepts for each objective.

Finally try to look ahead to your return to your work setting. What will be the first step you will take to implement your program? If we were invisible observers from the Planet Program what would we actually see you doing?

FIGURE 13


SUMMARY
OF
SYSTEMATIC PLANNING MODEL
MAJOR POINTS LEARNED
Theory
Items
Needs Assessment
Data
Analysis
Conceptual Framework
Identification of Needs
Objectives
Review Existing Programs
Process
Program Development
Staffing
Support-Integration
Evaluation
MODULE OBJECTIVE 1
1.
2.
3.
MODULE OBJECTIVE 2
1.
2.
3.
MODULE OBJECTIVE 3
1.
2.
3.
MODULE OBJECTIVE 4
1.
2.
3.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A - COMPARISON RATING FORM

Directions: For each vignette indicate the two issues which were most clearly demonstrated by marking an X in the appropriate box. Then briefly indicate supporting data for your assessment.

Vignettes	Congruence	Dreams	Professional Career Stages	Managerial Types	Roles-Theatres	Sex Differences
1. Man in Atypical Role			X starting new career		X family - career balance	
2. Woman in 30-Year Crisis		X in career never dreamt about				X moving out of traditional career pattern
3. Man Mid-Life Crisis	X no longer in good fit area	X can't visualize being in same career				

Vignettes	Congruence	Dreams	Professional Career Stages	Managerial Types	Roles-Theatres	Sex Difference
4. Woman Wanting Upward Mobility		X sees herself in more challenging role	X beginning career			
5. Woman Whose Plans Are Based on Husband's Career		X suppressed for husband's				X vicarious achievement
6. Man Contemplating Mid-Career Change	X present career no longer a fit		X hard to move into apprentice role			

Vignettes	Congruence	Dreams	Professional Career Stages	Managerial Types	Roles-Theatres	Sex Difference
7. Woman Anticipating Retirement	X can't see herself in non-work activity				X work serves as one of her primary roles	
8. Woman Experiencing Sex Discrimination			X has no place to move			X inequity in salary
9. Man Approaching Retirement				X "Gamesman"	X defines work as primary role	

APPENDIX B

CAREER DEVELOPMENT SURVEY

We are trying to assess the career development needs of GSFC employees. Would you please take a few minutes and complete the following form.

Code:
Position:
Grade:
Years at Goddard:

DIRECTIONS: Listed below are possible needs of employees like yourself. In the column on the left mark an X in the box which best describes how important the need is to you.

In the column on the right mark an X in the box which best describes how well that need is being met.

EXAMPLE

Strong Need	Moderate Need	Weak Need	No Need	I NEED:	Need Being Met	Need Partially Being Met	Need Not Being Met
X				To learn about other Civil Service job opportunities	X		

The above example demonstrates a strong need which is being met. Complete all items.

S = Strong Need
M = Moderate Need
W = Weak Need
NO = No Need

M = Need Being Met
PM = Need Partially Being Met
NOT = Need Not Being Met

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	S	M	W	NO	I NEED:	M	PM	NOT
1.					A better understanding of my abilities, and work related interests and values.			
2.					To know about training opportunities available at GSFC			
3.					To know about career opportunities available within GSFC			
4.					A better understanding of what career options are available to me.			
5.					A better understanding of various career areas, what they offer and what qualifications are necessary			
6.					To know about various educational opportunities			
7.					To get help in developing and implementing career plans			
8.					To know about career opportunities available outside of GSFC			
9.					To know more about my skills and abilities			
10.					To understand the impact of work on my life			
11.					To know how my values affect my career choice			
12.					To know how to apply and interview for jobs			

	S	M	W	NO	I NEED	M	PM	NOT
13.					To get some on-the-job experience in those career areas I am interested in.			
14.					To learn how to better interact with co-workers and supervisor			
15.					To learn how to change my job responsibilities			
16.					To learn how to manage the process of job change			

17. What career planning and counseling services would you like to see GSFC offer?

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APPENDIX C - SUMMARIZING AND DISPLAYING PRE-POST GROUP GOAL ATTAINMENT SCALING SCORES

Participant	Pre GAS	Post GAS	Change GAS
1	38.60	50.00	11.40
2	35.52	40.95	5.43
3	30.00	60.00	30.00
4	36.32	54.56	18.24
5	36.32	54.56	18.24
6	37.60	59.30	21.70
7	40.88	45.44	4.56
8	38.60	52.28	13.68
9	40.88	52.28	11.40
10	34.90	43.96	9.06
11	36.32	54.56	18.24
12	40.88	52.56	11.68
13	36.32	59.12	22.80
14	43.16	61.40	18.24
15	37.33	53.62	16.29
16	40.88	59.12	18.24
17	42.76	61.40	18.64
18	36.32	56.84	20.52
mean GAS	37.98	54.00	16.02

Appendix A - Summary Data - Step 3

Total # of Goals
Multiply number of participants (12) by number of goals each person set. 56

(and %) of Successes
Count number of goals checked at 0, +1, +2 value: These are on individual GAS Post Assessment Forms. These are considered to be successes. 42
Divide 42 by 56 for percentage of successes 83%

(and %) of Failures
Count number of goals checked at -1 and -2 value on GAS Post Assessment Forms. These are considered failures. 10
Divide 10 by 56 for percentage of failures. 17%

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Program _____

Purpose(s) of Evaluation _____

Audience(s) for Evaluation _____

PROGRAM OBJECTIVES	What objective is being evaluated? What is the goal or need statements to which this objective relates? Is this objective written in such a form that it can be measured? Is the implied measure appropriate for the objective?
EVALUATION DESIGN	What questions must this design address? What information must this design be able to produce in order to answer these questions? To what purposes of evaluation do these questions relate? What information will the audience accept as evidence related to the purpose of the evaluation?
ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENTS	What kinds of assessment instruments will be most appropriate to secure the information required in the design? (Norm or criterion referenced tests - questionnaires - interviews - observations - rating scales - log sheets - narrative reports)
ADMINISTRATION DATES AND PERSONNEL	During what month or months should assessment take place? Who would be the most appropriate person to collect the data? Who is responsible for assigning personnel and dates?
DATA-ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES	What kinds of scores will be most useful in providing the information needed, as identified in the purpose and in the design? What kinds of data analysis will be most appropriate? Will outside help be required to do the required analysis?
MONITORING PROGRAM ACTIVITIES	What activities are central to the accomplishing of the objectives? What information must be collected to accomplish the purposes of the evaluation?
MONITORING DATES AND PERSONNEL	Who will perform the monitoring function? How frequently must the activities for this objective be monitored? To whom should the monitoring be reported?
KEY REPORTING DATES	Who will be interviewed to ensure that reporting dates meet decision or user requirements? Who will establish reporting deadlines?
WHO IS TO RECEIVE THE REPORT(S) *	What different audiences will receive evaluation reports on this objective? Have the questions identified by the audiences during the initial design step been addressed in the evaluation report? Have the purposes of the evaluation been accomplished?
DETERMINING HOW THE DATA REPORTS WILL BE USED	What activities have been planned to ensure the most effective use of the evaluation reports?

(California State Department of Education, 1977)

* For a suggested final report outline see Appendix E.

PROGRAM EVALUATION PLANNING FORM

Program _____

Purpose(s) of Evaluation _____

Audience(s) for Evaluation _____

PROGRAM OBJECTIVES	
EVALUATION DESIGN	
ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENTS	
ADMINISTRATION DATES AND PERSONNEL	
DATA - ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES	
MONITORING PROGRAM ACTIVITIES	
MONITORING DATES AND PERSONNEL	
KEY REPORTING DATES	
WHO IS TO RECEIVE THE REPORT(S)	
DETERMINING HOW THE DATA REPORTS WILL BE USED	

APPENDIX E

FINAL REPORT OUTLINE

1. Program Goals and Objectives
   a. Review and translate the goals and objectives of the program into the language of the reader.
2. Program Description
   a. Describe the population participating in the program.
   b. State the length of the program with beginning and ending dates.
   c. Describe the significant activities, materials, and personnel used in the program.
   d. Note parts of the program that are unique.
3. Program Evaluation Procedures
   a. Describe the design, instruments, and analyses which were used in evaluating the extent to which the stated objectives were accomplished.
   b. Tailor the language and terminology to the audience that is to receive the report.
4. Program Accomplishments
   a. Describe the positive results of successful activities.
   b. Describe the marginal results of unsuccessful activities.
   c. Describe unanticipated outcomes and side effects that have been observed.
   d. Emphasize changes observed such as score gains, changes in attitudes and behaviors.

5. Program Evaluation Conclusions

   a. Present judgments as to why each objective was or was not met.

   b. Present alternative proposals for different approaches in those instances in which objectives were not realized.

   c. Present alternative proposals for improvements in those instances in which realized objectives could be surpassed in future programs.

   d. Draw summary statements on program effectiveness through a balanced review of successful and not-so-successful outcomes.

   e. Whenever possible, relate program effectiveness to program costs.

6. Other Findings

   a. Report on the results of surveys, questionnaires, interviews, and other such data that may not fall under the heading of Program Accomplishments, but are relevant to program outcomes.

   b. Report on informal findings and conclusions drawn from information assembled outside the framework of the program evaluation.

7. Recommendations Related to the Program and Program Evaluation

   a. Recommend a preferred alternative for each new approach and improvement in the program which would lead to greater achievement of objectives in the future.

   b. Suggest revisions in objectives and in affected program features, especially regarding those objectives that were not met.

   c. Suggest revisions in program evaluation design, instruments,

analyses, and procedures that can be applied to subsequent program evaluation efforts.

(California State Department of Education, 1977)

COORDINATOR'S GUIDE

DESIGNING
CAREER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS
FOR BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY

MODULE 41

March 1979

Developed by the National Consortium on Competency-Based Staff Development, in cooperation with the American Institutes for Research, under support from the United States Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare under Part C of the Vocational Education Act of 1963.

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COORDINATOR'S ROLE

Your role as coordinator is crucial. In addition to the following general overview, you may find further study helpful. See references, page 14. Your role may be thought of in four categories.

Set the Tone

Your behavior will be a model for participants. Be enthusiastic, cheerful, informal and behave in an open and democratic way. Recognize and promote the participants as self-directing and autonomous persons. Don't make things deadly and boring. Inject humor into the activities and discussions. Let people joke around some and have fun. On the other hand, make it clear that there is a very serious purpose behind it all. People should be relaxed, but alert, interested, and motivated.

Set the Pace

Maintain the right pace. If things bog down, inject some humor, ask some provocative questions, get a lively discussion going. Some sections can be summarized orally to speed things, and this can be planned ahead. If things are going too fast and people are getting lost, slow it down, let them ask questions, spend time orally covering the points. Keep the flow smooth at junctures in the module--winding up one activity with a satisfying resolution and easing participants into the next. Take breaks as you sense they are needed. Be flexible in structuring activities adapting to individuals and situations as needed. Regard times listed in the "Module Outline" as flexible.

Facilitate

Stimulate participants to enquire. Enter into a process of joint discovery and questioning with the participants. Encourage discussion and interaction. Bring out the shy people. Don't let the aggressive ones dominate. Sense the feeling tone of the group. Provide support for those who may be experiencing a significant level of interpersonal discomfort. Seek out questions and uneasiness. Get them into the open, talk them over, especially at the beginning. Watch facial expressions and body language. Be a trouble shooter. Spot problems and work them out. In short, act as a guide through the module, but try not to get in the way. Sit on your impulses. Avoid making a comment or observation until it will count in terms of group growth or change.

Evaluate

Make sure the participants are headed in the right direction, nudge them that way when they're not. Judge whether they perform adequately in the activities. Keep a record of how each participant does. In general, maintain the quality level of the workshop.

SPECIFIC FUNCTIONS: PRIOR TO WORKSHOP

1. Study the Module thoroughly. Be familiar with the participant materials and this Coordinator's Guide. Be clear about your own goals. Have a definite sense of purpose.
2. Make sure all needed materials are present for the workshop. This will include videotape equipment, a blackboard and chalk, name tags, paper and pens, and so on. Learn how to operate equipment.
3. Order videotape for use with Objective One. See Module, page 39.
4. Provide as comfortable a physical setting as possible. Check the physical facilities carefully before the workshop to determine if lighting, acoustics, noise control, ventilation and temperature are adequate. Make sure the physical facilities are adequate for comfort: coat racks, rest rooms, ash trays and no smoking areas, parking, traffic directions.
5. Provide coffee and refreshments. Allow for socializing to occur.
6. You may want to utilize the whole meeting room for climate setting. Use posters or displays and encourage participants to move around and change positions during the sessions. Plan for alternating periods of rest and work, talk and silence.
7. When feasible, mail copies of the Module to participants for their study prior to the workshop.

SPECIFIC FUNCTIONS: AT THE WORKSHOP

1. Introduce yourself to participants. Briefly explain your background and the role you will play in the odule.
2. Introduce participants to one another. One method is to have participants introduce themselves (name, organization) and briefly state their reasons and goals for attending the workshop. Another method is to have participants divide into pairs to tell each other why they came to the workshop and what they hope to gain from it. Your goal is to create a more cohesive group.
3. Establish time limits (lunch, when day ends) and schedule for the day, and do your best to stick to them. See Module Outline in Guide, page 6 .
4. Conduct Pre-Assessment Activity - Goal Attainment Scaling. See Guide, page 7.
5. Introduce the Module. Briefly lay out the structure of the Module. Have participants read the Introduction (page one). Answer questions.
6. Start participants on the text. Follow Guide for instructions and activities pertaining to each Objective.
7. Conduct a Wrap-Up session. Your tasks here are to:
    a. Summarize what has gone on and been accomplished.
    b. Resolve any unanswered questions.
    c. Point out sources for additional study. Go through the Reference section briefly, add any sources you know of.
    d. Mention any technical assistance available--experts re-

lated to Module topics to whom participants might be able to turn.

e. Conduct evaluation activities. See Guide, page 15.

8. Throughout, observe how things go; collect suggestions for ways to improve the Module. Keep a written account of these.

MODULE OUTLINE

First Day Schedule

Module Goal and Objectives		10 min.
Introduction		15 min.
Pre-Assessment Activity		45 min.
Objective I		
View videotape or read transcripts		30 min.
Lecturette or read theories		70 min.
Complete vignette assessment form		20 min.
Objective II		
Introductory activity		20 min.
Study lecturette on model		45 min.
Assessment activity		45 min.
	Total	320 min.

Second Day Schedule

Objective III		
Lecturette and read about programs		45 min.
Lecturette on program design steps		60 min.
Complete program planning worksheet		60 min.
Objective IV		
Review program evaluation requirements		30 min.
Complete form		20 min.
Read program data categories		30 min.
Goal Attainment Scaling		60 min.
Summary and Evaluation		60 min.
	Total	365 min.

PRE-ASSESSMENT ACTIVITY

1. Be sure to familiarize yourself completely with this activity before using it.
2. Give each participant a sheet of carbon paper to make a copy of the GAS form. You can use this data to help individualize the workshop activities to meet participant learning goals and expectations.
3. Participants may need assistance in describing behaviors in specific, measureable, concrete, and clear terms to fit their goal. If this seems to be a general difficulty, the following Introductory Activity may be helpful.

Introductory Activity

Read or describe to the group the following situation:

Suppose that an individual said to you that s/he wanted very much to be a good parent. If you asked him/her what s/he would have to do to be a good parent, that individual might say s/he would bank $25.00 a month for his/her son's education. On the other hand, you could suggest to the individual another behavioral outcome of being a good parent: instituting a family council in which the whole family would meet weekly for one hour, with each person--children as well as parents--free to raise issues for discussion.

For the goal of "being a good parent" think of what that means in terms of actual behaviors. The objective is to define the behavior so that anyone can see the behavior, count the behavior, and

describe the situation in which the behavior occurs.

Now ask the group to come up with more behavioral indicators of being a good parent and write their suggestions on the board.

Alternate example

Suppose that an individual said to you that s/he wanted to exercise more. If you asked him/her what s/he would be able to do as a result of an exercise program, s/he might say s/he would be able to jog a mile. On the other hand, you could suggest to the individual another behavioral outcome of participating in an exercise program: doing 100 situps in five minutes.

For the goal of "exercising more" think of what that means in terms of actual behaviors. Does the individual wish to improve his/her cardiovascular capacity, his/her muscular flexibility, his/her muscular strength? The objective is to define the behavior so that anyone can see the behavior, count the behavior, and describe the situation in which the behavior occurs.

OBJECTIVE ONE

OBJECTIVE: To apply concepts of adult career development to the problems of clients.

ACTIVITIES:

1. View videotape showing vignettes of adult problems, or read vignettes pages 42-49.
2. Read descriptions of six perspectives on adult career development. (Module coordinators may choose to present a lecture based on the material in the text.)
3. Review vignettes.

EVALUATION: Apply the concepts of adult career development presented in the six adult career development theories, by using the Vignette Rating Form to indicate the two issues (out of six) that are most obviously manifested in each vignette.

INSTRUCTIONS TO MODULE COORDINATORS:

1. If you have the videotape, begin Objective One by showing it. If you do not have a videotape, begin with the theories and then have participants read the vignette transcripts at the end of Objective One.
2. Have participants read the text material on theories (preferably before the workshop session), or give a brief lecture on the material.
3. Summarize the main elements of each theory in group discussion.
4. Read the vignette transcripts.

5. Have participants complete the Vignette Rating Form.
6. Assess each participant's ability to apply concepts by comparing the participant's completed Vignette Rating Form (Appendix A) with the sample form. Do this by having participants exchange forms with one another. Completion of this objective will be obtained through 75 percent rate of participant match with sample form.

OBJECTIVE TWO

OBJECTIVE: To demonstrate basic skills in assessing organizational needs.

ACTIVITIES:

1. Engage in introductory activity.
2. Study four-part model for needs assessment.
3. Complete assessment activity.

EVALUATION: Analyze needs assessment data using model guidelines, and design an organizational needs assessment plan.

INSTRUCTIONS TO MODULE COORDINATORS:

1. After the small groups have reported their plans, list the plans on the board and use the variety of techniques as a starting point to introduce the area of needs assessment. Categorize the needs that emerge in three main columns: individual needs, decision-makers' needs, and organizational needs.
2. For the assessment activity, emphasize that the group should be considering steps needed to collect the needed data for a complete needs assessment - not that they should be able to describe the data at this point.

OBJECTIVE THREE

OBJECTIVE: To outline a plan for a career development program to be implemented in a business/industrial setting.

ACTIVITIES:

1. Read descriptions of actual programs.
2. Review program design considerations.
3. Complete a Program Planning Worksheet.

EVALUATION: Design a strategy/rationale/plan for "selling" the program to the organization's management.

INSTRUCTIONS TO MODULE COORDINATORS:

1. After discussing the actual programs, have the participants share with the group their knowledge of additional programs with which they are familiar.
2. Have participants complete the activities, all of which are self-explanatory.

OBJECTIVE IV
EVALUATING PROGRAMS

OBJECTIVE:

Outline a program evaluation plan.

ACTIVITIES:

Review program evaluation requirements, complete requirements form.

Read description of program data categories.

Complete post Goal Attainment Scaling Form.

EVALUATION:

Design a tentative program evaluation plan specifying three strategies/techniques and how the information provided can be used.

INSTRUCTIONS TO MODULE COORDINATORS:

Emphasize the necessity for integrating evaluation into total program design.

For Activity 1 - list some of the anticipated data collection procedures on the board. After describing data collection categories on pages 88-90, go back to the list on the board and get the group to determine which procedures fall under what category.

Goal attainment scaling is outlined in text in a step-by-step process. Leaders should go through it once.

REFERENCES

This is not a complete reference list, but rather a few of the texts we have found helpful.

Finkel, Coleman. Professional Guide to Successful Meetings. Boston: Herman Pub. Co., 1976.
The chapter on the meeting environment may be especially helpful, including such information as room color, size, seating, and the happy registrant.

Ingalls, John D. A Trainer's Guide to Andragogy. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Dept. of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1973.
The author has brought together the new concepts and techniques of adult education and shown how they can be applied to the training of those who help adults learn.

Miller, Ernest C. (Ed.). Conference Leadership. New York: American Management Assn., Inc., 1972.
This manual was developed to serve as a training text in conference leadership. It offers some of the most universally accepted principles in the conduct of planned group discussions.

Schindler-Rainman, Eva and Ronald Lippitt. Taking Your Meetings Out of the Doldrums. La Jolla: University Associates, Inc., 1977.
The authors have assembled resources to stimulate your own innovations in workshop planning/leading, as well as optional strategies for you to adapt to your own style.

SAMPLE EVALUATION INSTRUMENTS

On the next five pages are two sample instruments, the Module Performance Record and the Evaluation Questionnaire for Staff Development Workshops. You may wish to use these instruments to gather information for evaluating any workshop in which you administer this module, and for making decisions about future workshops. The Module Performance Record (MPR) is a form for tallying participants' achievement of objectives. The Evaluation Questionnaire seeks participants' opinions on four dimensions: (1) perceived value of the workshop; (2) effects of participating in the workshop; (3) role and performance of the coordinator; and (4) recommended improvements in the workshop. As it now stands, the questionnaire should take participants 10-20 minutes to complete. You, as module coordinator, should complete the MPR form based upon the results of the postassessment or other evidence supplied by participants. If you duplicate the Evaluation Questionnaire for participants to complete, we suggest you print it as a four page booklet.

NATIONAL CONSORTIUM ON COMPETENCY-BASED STAFF DEVELOPMENT

MODULE PERFORMANCE RECORD

MODULE TITLE: _____

WORKSHOP DATES: _____

WORKSHOP COORDINATOR(S): _____

_____

Participants' Names (Alphabetically)	OBJECTIVES (Place a check (✓) mark for each objective achieved.)						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.							
2.							
3.							
4.							
5.							
6.							
7.							
8.							
9.							
10.							
11.							
12.							
13.							
14.							
15.							

Developed at the American Institutes for Research under support by the United States Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

NATIONAL CONSORTIUM ON COMPETENCY-BASED STAFF DEVELOPMENT

EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STAFF DEVELOPMENT WORKSHOPS

Your responses to the brief questions in this booklet will help us evaluate the workshop you just completed and make decisions regarding future workshops. Please take 10-20 minutes to answer honestly and thoughtfully. You need not sign your name, but we do need your help. Please answer each question. Thank you.

Name (Optional) _____ Date _____

Module Title _____

A. General Issues Related to the Workshop

Respond by checking the column (A, B, C, D, or E) of the statement which best expresses your feeling or opinion on each item in the following list. If none of the possible choices precisely represents your view, pick the one that comes closest.

STATEMENTS	Column A: I strongly agree	Column B: I agree	Column C: I disagree	Column D: I strongly disagree	Column E: I don't know. I have no basis for answering.
1. This workshop made a valuable contribution to my professional development.					
2. I acquired no new knowledge during this workshop.					
3. I would not recommend this workshop to anyone else.					
4. I am glad I attended this workshop.					
5. In this workshop, I experienced at least one positive change in my knowledge, attitudes, or skills.					
6. As a result of this workshop, I expect that I will help improve the career guidance program in my work setting.					
7. I experienced at least one negative effect from this workshop.					
8. This module must be improved.					
9. The Coordinator was an asset to this workshop.					
10. The Coordinator was unprepared.					
11. The Coordinator was poorly organized.					
12. The Coordinator was clear and to the point.					
13. The material and activities in this workshop were not helpful					
14. The material and activities were applicable to my needs.					
15. The material and activities were routine and boring.					
16. The workshop's objectives addressed the training needs that I hoped they would.					

Developed by the National Consortium on Competency-Based Staff Development in cooperation with the American Institutes for Research, under support by the United States Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare under Part C of the Vocational Education Act of 1963.

B. Please list and briefly describe up to three major positive changes that you have experienced in your knowledge, attitudes, or skills because of this workshop. Continue on the back of this booklet if necessary. If you did not experience any positive changes, please check the appropriate space.

_____ There were no positive changes.

C. Please list and briefly describe any negative effects you have experienced because of this workshop. Continue on the back of this booklet if necessary. If you did not experience any negative effects, please check the appropriate space.

_____ There were no negative effects.

D. Please list and briefly describe any improvements you anticipate in your career guidance program as a result of this workshop. Continue on the back of this booklet if necessary. If you don't expect any improvements as a result of this workshop, please check the appropriate space.

_____ I don't expect any improvements in my career guidance program as a result of this workshop.

E. Please list and briefly describe any other comments on this workshop, criticisms of it, or suggestions you have for improving it. We are especially interested in your ideas on topics or activities that should receive more or less emphasis. Continue on the back of this page if necessary.

NATIONAL CONSORTIUM COMPETENCY-BASED STAFF DEVELOPMENT RESOURCES

Modules 1-12 comprise a series on Developing Comprehensive Career Guidance Programs.

1. Career Development Theory
   Barbara Sanderson and Carolyn Helliwell

2. Program Development Model
   Charles Dayton and H. B. Gelatt

3. Assessing Desired Outcomes
   Charles Dayton

4. Assessing Current Status
   Phyllis DuBois

5. Establishing Program Goals
   Charles Dayton

6. Specifying Student Performance Objectives
   Laurie Harrison

7. Selecting Alternative Program Strategies
   H. B. Gelatt

8. Specifying Process Objectives
   Barbara Pletcher

9. Developing Program Staff
   Barbara Pletcher

10. Trying Out Activities and Monitoring Early Implementation Efforts
    Steven M. Jung

11. Conducting Summative Evaluation (Cost-Impact Studies)
    Jean Wolman

12. Communicating Evaluation Results
    Sarah Roberts

The remaining modules address other competencies necessary for providing comprehensive career guidance.

13. Utilizing Strategies for Adult Guidance
    Zandy Leibowitz and Nancy Schlossberg

14. Designing Programs for Adult Guidance
    Zandy Leibowitz and Nancy Schlossberg

15. Providing Life/Career Planning for Women and Girls
    Janice M. Birk

16. Providing Career Guidance for Young Women
    Pamela G. Colby

17. Enhancing Understanding of Students with Physical Disabilities
Susan L. McBain

18. Helping Students Explore Work and Leisure Options
Pamela G. Colby

19. Planning a Career Resource Center
Robert A. Wood, Neal Rogers, and Clella Klinge

20. Developing People Relationship Competencies for Career Resource Center Technicians
Jill Paddick and Dale Dobson

21. Developing Facility Maintenance Competencies for Career Resource Center Technicians
Clarence Johnson

22. Planning Pre-Employment Programs
Joyce Fielding and Marvin Fielding

23. Conducting Job Development Programs
Joyce Fielding and Marvin Fielding

24. Conducting Job Placement Programs
Joyce Fielding and Marvin Fielding

25. Conducting Follow-Up and Follow-Through Programs
Joyce Fielding and Marvin Fielding

26. Imaging Futuristic Career Guidance Goals
Juliet V. Miller, Garry R. Walz, and Libby Benjamin

27. Imaging Futuristic Career Guidance Programs
Juliet V. Miller, Garry R. Walz, and Libby Benjamin

28. Using Change Agent Skills to Manage Career Guidance Program Development
Juliet V. Miller

29. Using Change Agent Skills to Manage Career Guidance Program Implementation
Juliet V. Miller

30. Developing Effective Public Relations
Norman C. Gysbers

31. Developing and Conducting In-Service Programs
Al Stiller

32. Providing Leisure Information in the Career Resource Center
Ron Klein and Robert Swan

33. Developing Career Center Resources for Faculty Use
Marlene Fredricksen and Robert Swan

34. Providing Career Guidance in a Group Setting
Perry Samuels

35. Personalizing Career Guidance Assessment Information Through Group Counseling
Joe Wittmer and Larry C. Loesch

36. Clarifying and Articulating Individual Values and Skills for Career Planning
Jerald R. Forster

37. Helping Parents to Help Adolescents in Career Exploration
Janice M. Birk

38. Helping Young Adults Make the School-to-Work Transition
Sherri Johnson, C. D. Johnson, and Niel Carey

39. Helping the Community Help Students with Career Development
Richard Lutz and Jim Crook

40. Establishing Community-Based Employment Programs
Ellen A. Stewart

41. Designing Career Development Programs for Business and Industry
Zandy Leibowitz and Nancy Schlossberg

42. Developing Coping Skills for Career-Related Changes
Phil Abrego and Lawrence Brammer

43. Helping People with Preretirement Planning--An Introduction
Garry R. Walz, Libby Benjamin, Helen L. Mamarchev, and Beverly Pritchett

44. Counseling Needs of the Older Adult
Patricia Cook and Ellen Stewart

45. Specializing Career Guidance Strategies for Use with Ethnic Minorities
Woodroe M. Parker and Roderick J. McDavis

46. Using Self Awareness and Effective Communication for Helping Ethnic Minorities with Career Guidance
Roderick J. McDavis and Woodroe M. Parker

47. Helping Elementary School Students Develop Decision-Making Skills
Lee Winocur

48. Consulting in the Area of Career Guidance
Tom Quinn

49. Planning Collaborative Career Guidance Projects
Larry C. Loesch and Joe Wittmer

50. Becoming Resource Resourceful
Garry R. Walz, Libby Benjamin, Helen L. Mamarchev, and Beverly Pritchett

51. Making Change Happen: Learning a Systematic Model for Change
Libby Benjamin and Garry R. Walz

52. Making Change Happen: Overcoming Barriers to Change
Libby Benjamin and Garry R. Walz

The National Consortium has also produced a catalog of competency-based programs and lists of desirable competencies for providing comprehensive career guidance.

53. Competency-Based Education for Guidance and Counseling Personnel: A Catalog of Programs and Competencies--Second Edition
Susan L. McBain, Compiler